

SHORT COMPENDIUM

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ANCIENT AND MODERN

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

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OF THE

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

A *Gulley*

SHORT COMPENDIUM
OF ANCIENT AND MODERN
HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH,

AND

DEDICATED, BY PERMISSION,

TO MISS BILLINGS,

BY MR. DE LANSÉGÜE. *K*

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[Entered at Stationers' Hall.] *9*

SHORT COMPENDIUM

HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

TRANSLATED FROM THE BRITISH



Dr. M. DE JANSZON

LONDON

Printed by J. GALT, at the British Museum

1841

[Entered at Stationers' Hall]

DEDICATION.

MADAM,

COUNTENANCED as I have the honour to be, by your truly respectable parents, I the more readily avail myself of the permission they have granted me, of dedicating to you this translation, as it gives me an early opportunity of offering a justly deserved tribute, not only to that decided and natural attachment to study, which from your infancy has been your particular characteristic; but also to that continual and indefatigable ardour in the pursuit of new acquirements; at the same time you are improving those you already possess.—It does not a little flatter my vanity in being able to assert, that having the honour of counting

you in the number of my pupils, no one can better than myself enumerate your talents; from which I could not, even at this moment refrain, were I not intimately persuaded, that among those virtues which adorn your mind, modesty and diffidence forbid the most deserved elogiums.

Happy, thrice happy, Madam, those teachers, who are so fortunate as to meet with pupils like you; the pleasure of instructing will ever be an adequate reward for their labour.

I am,

With the greatest Respect,

MADAM,

Your most obedient, and

Obliged, humble Servant,

DE LANSÉGÜE.

P R E F A C E.

HAVING, since my residence in England, entirely dedicated my time and labour to the instruction of young persons of both sexes, and finding that Geography made an essential part of their education, I expected to have met with a treatise on the elements of that science, properly digested and adapted to young capacities; but the only compendium I found generally made use of in schools, is that of Mr. Langlet Dufrenoy, which I am far from depreciating; but notwithstanding the advantages which may be drawn from the productions of that able and estimable author, I presume they would have been much more useful, had they been something more descriptive. It is not sufficient, in my opinion, to make young people acquainted with the names of towns, cities and rivers,—with their latitudes and longitudes,—they ought at the same time to know

know the nature of the climate, the produce, commerce and government of the different places they are taught to find on the globes; in order, that a young person leaving school, and entering into the world, might be capable of taking an active part in conversation, which, in this country, generally runs on politics, and the interests of princes.

I had sketched out a plan of *Elemental Geography* for the use of schools and beginners, but the multiplicity of my other occupations have deprived me of the satisfaction of offering it to the public, which has determined me to present this translation, which has never yet been published in England; and though I have had no share in its compilation, it nevertheless bears a great resemblance to that which I had conceived. I shall esteem myself happy, if it is received with indulgence; and sufficiently rewarded for my labour, if it eases the memory, and facilitates the study of so useful a science.

A SHORT

(1)

A SHORT COMPENDIUM
OF
ANCIENT AND MODERN
HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY, &c.

LESSON I.

Idea of GEOGRAPHY in general.

Q. **W**HAT is understood by the word Geography?

A. We understand, a general description of the earth; and the end we propose by that science, is the knowledge of the names, and situations of all its different parts.

Q. What figure is ascribed to the earth?

A. In general the earth is looked upon to be round, or something near that form; for which reason it is called the Globe; and its whole surface is composed of earth and water.

B

Q. How

Q. How is the earth divided?

A. Into four grand divisions, Europe, Asia, Africa and America.

Q. What knowledge had the Ancients with regard to the Globe?

A. Three parts only were known, which are called the Ancient Continent; for which reason America is called the New Continent, from its being more recently discovered.

Q. Does Geography adopt any particular terms?

A. Yes, several, with which it is necessary to be familiarised; such as continent, island, peninsula, gulf, strait, cape or promontory, and isthmus.

Q. What is a continent?

A. By the word continent we understand an extensive tract of land, which comprehends several countries adjacent to each other.

Q. What is an island?

A. It is a portion of the earth surrounded on all sides by water.

Q. What is a peninsula?

A. It is also a portion of the earth, surrounded on all sides by water, except a narrow passage of earth which joins it to the continent.

Q. What is an isthmus?

A. It is that narrow neck of land, which joins a peninsula to the continent.

Q. What is a strait?

A. We

A. We call strait, a narrow arm of the sea which runs between two banks of land, and joins two seas.

Q. What is a cape?

A. A cape or promontory, is a high point of land jutting into the sea, the point of which is called a cape.

Q. What is a gulf?

A. It is a portion of the sea which advances considerably into the land.

Q. How are denominated the different waters on the globe?

A. They are known by the names of seas, lakes, and rivers.

Q. What is a sea?

A. A sea is a vast extent of salt water.

Q. What is a lake?

A. We give that name to a less considerable extent of water, surrounded on all sides by the land, and which has no current.

Q. What do you call a river?

A. There are two sorts of rivers, some large and rapid; those in other languages have a particular name, but in English, we say great rivers; others not so large and rapid, are simply called rivers; both of which are composed of sweet water, and have a determined current.

Q. By what means is the form of the earth represented?

A. By what is called a general map of the world, or by maps representing some particular country, or countries, and in which the different parts or provinces of each country are described; and the general map of the earth shows the two continents on a plain surface.

Q. What points are observed on maps?

A. Four; the east, west, north, and south.

Q. How are they placed on the maps?

A. Every time a person looks on a map, the east is on his right, the west to his left, the north occupies the upper part, and the south the lower.

Q. Of what advantage is the knowledge of those points?

A. Those points, which are called the four cardinal points, shew the cast of the geographical maps, and determine the situations of the different parts of the earth with regard to each other.

Q. What constitutes the science of geography?

A. The intimate knowledge of each different country, its name, those of its cities and principal rivers, and each respective position, in order that they may be readily found on the map.

LESSON II.

General Idea of EUROPE.

Q. WHICH is the most renowned of the four grand divisions of the earth ?

A. Although Europe is far the least extensive of the four, it has certainly attained a much greater degree of celebrity than the three others, as it is the most populous, and that its inhabitants have more knowledge and industry.

Q. How is it bounded ?

A. On the north it is bounded by the Frozen Ocean, by Asia on the east, by the Mediterranean Sea on the south, and by the Western or Atlantic Ocean on the west.

Q. Does Europe contain but one state ?

A. No, it contains several countries and states differently governed.

Q. In what manner are they governed ?

A. Some are monarchical, others republican, and some mixed.

Q. What do you understand by a monarchical government ?

A. A government goes under that denomination when the sovereign authority is in the hands of one single person, as in Spain or Denmark :

and when a government is so disposed that the supreme power is above the laws, that government is then called absolute or despotic.

Q. What is a republic?

A. When the sovereign authority is lodged in the hands of several, as in Holland; it is then called a republic.

Q. What difference do you meet with in republics?

A. In some, such as Venice, the nobles and principal men are vested with the supreme power; in others, as Geneva, it is in the hands of the people in general.

Q. What are the different denominations?

A. The first is called an aristocratic government, and the other democratic.

Q. What is a mixed government?

A. A government is monarchical and mixed, when the power of the sovereign is limited, as it were, by that of his subjects, as it is in England.

Q. What other difference is there in those states?

A. Some are called empires, others kingdoms, and others republics.

Q. What is an empire?

A. It is nothing more than a monarchical government, of which the sovereign is called an emperor.

Q. What is a kingdom?

A. A government where the sovereign is a king.

Q. How many empires are there in Europe?

A. Three; Germany, Russia and Turkey.

Q. How many great kingdoms?

A. Six; Spain, France, Great Britain, Sweden, Denmark and Poland.

Q. How many of less extent?

A. Five; Portugal, Hungary, Prussia, the two Sicilies and Sardinia.

Q. How many great republics?

A. Four; Venice, Genoa, Switzerland and the United Provinces.

Q. What religion does Europe profess?

A. Most of the European powers profess the Christian faith.

Q. With what difference?

A. The Christian religion is divided into three principal churches, viz. the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, and the Greek Church.

Q. Are there not two sects of Protestants?

A. Yes; one part follow the Reformation by Luther, and the other by Calvin.

Q. How is Europe divided?

A. Into sixteen different parts; four to the north, eight in the center, and four to the south.

Q. Which are the four to the north?

A. They are the British Isles, Denmark, Sweden and Russia.

Q. How are the eight in the center subdivided?

A. Into four large, and four small.

Q. Which are the four largest?

A. Poland, Hungary, Germany and France.

Q. And the four smaller?

A. Savoy, Switzerland, the Low Countries, and the kingdom of Prussia.

Q. Where are they situated?

A. The three first are situated between Germany and France, and the fourth north of Poland.

Q. Which are the four in the south?

A. They are Portugal, Spain, Italy and European Turkey.

LESSON III.

The BRITISH ISLES.

Q. WHERE are the British Isles situate?

A. They are situated north of France and the Low Countries, from which they are separated by the English Channel.

Q. What are those islands?

A. We remark two large and several small ones, which, in all, form the three kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Q. Have those kingdoms several kings?

A. The three kingdoms form but one state, and are subject to the same sovereign, who has the title of King of Great Britain.

Q. Who

Q. Who were the people who formerly penetrated into England?

A. The Romans, commanded by Julius Cæsar, invaded it about sixty years before the nativity of Christ; they conquered part of the kingdom, preserved it under the reigns of several of their succeeding Emperors, and abandoned it about the fifth century.

Q. What happened after?

A. A northern people, the Angles and Saxons, alternately took possession of it, and established seven kingdoms, which subsisted for some time.

Q. Who conquered England after that?

A. William, surnamed the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, who claimed a right to England, landed, and subdued it entirely in 1067.

Q. Who succeeded him?

A. In 1155 the crown devolved to Henry II. of the house of Anjou, from whom descended the houses of York and Lancaster.

Q. Did they not contest for the crown?

A. Yes; for a long time, and their competition gave rise to many long and cruel civil wars, which ended in 1485, by the marriage of Henry VII. of the House of Lancaster, with an heiress of the house of York.

Q. Did his son, Henry VIII. do any thing remarkable?

A. Yes; he threw off the yoke of the Pope in 1543, and declared himself and his successors chiefs of the church of England.

Q. Had

Q. Had he any issue?

A. Yes; a son, named Edward, who did not reign long, and two daughters, Mary and Elizabeth, who both succeeded Edward, one after the other. Queen Mary married Philip II. king of Spain, put the Roman Catholic religion on a good footing in her dominions, and died without issue. Elizabeth illustrated herself by her superior qualifications,—established the Reformation in England on a solid basis,—was never married, and enjoyed a long and glorious reign.

Q. Who was her successor?

A. James VI. king of Scotland, of the house of Stuart, in 1603; he united the three kingdoms, and was the first who took the title of king of Great Britain. After him, his son, Charles I. having endeavoured to become an absolute prince, raised a sedition against him among the people.

Q. Was this insurrection attended with any fatal consequences?

A. Yes; the parliamentary troops defeated the king,—he was taken prisoner, was tried, condemned, and beheaded in the year 1649.

Q. Who governed afterwards?

A. Oliver Cromwell, who was general and chief of the parliamentary troops;—he governed with the title of Protector, but, in fact, was an absolute monarch.

Q. What happened after his death?

A. Charles

A. Charles II. son of Charles I. who had taken refuge in France, was recalled, brought to England by General Monk, and restored to the crown, May the 29th, 1660.

Q. Who succeeded to Charles II.

A. James II. his brother, who being bred in the Roman Catholic religion, attempted to make it predominant in England, and usurp an absolute power; but he was deprived of his crown in 1689.

Q. Who was then chosen king?

A. William, Prince of Orange, who was married to Princess Mary, daughter to James II. and reigned by the name of William the Third.

Q. What became of James II.?

A. He retired to France, where he died, after having made many fruitless attempts to recover the crown he had abdicated. His son, who was called James III. generally known by the name of the Pretender, retired to Rome, where he died in 1766.

Q. Had he any children?

A. He had two sons, the eldest of whom was named Prince Edward, who, in 1745, attempted, but in vain, to recover the throne with the aid of his party, which is now greatly diminished.

Q. Who succeeded to William III.?

A. He dying without issue, Ann, second daughter of James II. who had married the Prince of Denmark. As she also died without heirs, the crown devolved

devolved, in 1714, to George I. of the house of Hanover, who was nearest in kin of the Protestant line.

Q. Has the crown remained ever since in that family?

A. Yes; his son, George II. succeeded him in 1727, who was also Elector of Hanover:—and after his demise, which happened the 25th of October, 1760, his grandson, George III. the present king,—*whom God preserve*,—ascended the throne of Great Britain, September 22, 1761.

Q. How is Great Britain governed?

A. The government of Great Britain is monarchical, the crown hereditary, and in default of male heirs, the females succeed: the heir presumptive or apparent, is always called Prince of Wales.

Q. Is the king absolute?

A. No; his power, though great, is nevertheless limited by that of the parliament; he cannot make laws nor impose taxes without their concurrence,—neither can they enact any without his assent: notwithstanding, he can declare war or proclaim peace at his own will.

Q. How is the parliament composed?

A. It is undoubtedly an assemblage of the most respectable and enlightened men of the kingdom; it is composed of two houses, the Lords and the Commons;—in the first are the peers, dukes and bishops, &c.—in the second are the representatives

ratives of the nation, all gentlemen of merit and fortune, chosen by the different counties they represent, and among whom are often found men of the greatest abilities.

Q. What religion is predominant in Great Britain?

A. The Protestant, or Church of England; there are, nevertheless, great numbers of Presbyterians, and Roman Catholics, besides many sectaries.

LESSON IV.

Of ENGLAND.

Q. What are the boundaries of England?

A. England is bounded on the north by Scotland, on the south by the English Channel, and by the Ocean on the east and west.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. It has a temperate climate, the air is mild, the soil produces all the necessaries of life, except wine, but they make the most excellent beer.

Q. What is its produce?

A. It is abundant in corn, produces the finest pewter, great quantities of coals for firing, a fine breed of horses, and has several fine manufactures of woollen cloth.

Q. Are

Q. Are there many rivers in England?

A. Yes; the three principal of which are the Thames, the Severn, and the Humber.

Q. How is England divided?

A. Into five large provinces; the east, west, north and south provinces, and the middle counties: it contains in all fifty-two counties: the western province is called the Principality of Wales.

Q. What name has the capital?

A. London; it is situate on the Thames, and in the eastern province. It is one of the largest and most populous cities in Europe, and is not rivalled by any for its commerce.

Q. What are the most remarkable things in London?

A. The palace of Whitehall, Westminster Abbey, the Parliament House, St. Paul's Cathedral, the Tower, the Bank, the Royal Exchange, and several fine bridges.

Q. What other cities are there in the east?

A. Colchester, and Cambridge, where there is an university.

Q. What cities in the west?

A. They have Montgomery, the capital; and Pembroke, which is a sea-port.

Q. What cities are in the north?

A. York, and Newcastle, which is a sea-port.

Q. What cities in the south?

A. Can-

A. Canterbury, an archbishoprick; Dover, Portsmouth, and Plymouth; the three last are sea-ports. The Archbishop of Canterbury is primate of the kingdom. Dover is situated on the narrowest part of the English Channel, and is the most ordinary passage from France to England.

Q. What cities are there in the middle province?

A. You find Bristol at the mouth of the river Severn; it is a sea-port, and a town of great trade: on the north is Chester, also a sea-port; and towards the south, is Oxford, where there is a fine university.

Q. What islands are found near England?

A. The principal are the Isle of Wight in the south; the Isles of Anglesea and Man in the west.

Q. Is England a rich country?

A. It is, (on account of its extensive trade to foreign parts, and the indefatigable industry of its inhabitants, who have brought almost all the manufactures of other countries to the greatest perfection) one of the richest kingdoms in the known world.

LESSON V.

Of SCOTLAND and IRELAND.

Q. WHERE is Scotland situated?

A. Scotland is situated directly north of England, and is entirely surrounded by the sea on the three other sides.

Q. Of what nature is the climate?

A. The air is remarkably cold, especially in the northern provinces, which are covered with forests and mountains; but the southern parts are fruitful, and the coasts abound in fish.

Q. What is its produce?

A. Iron, coals, and salted fish.

Q. To whom did Scotland formerly belong?

A. It belonged to the house of Stuart, which had reigned there for centuries before the union of the two crowns, by the accession of James VI. as we have already remarked.

Q. How was it then governed?

A. It had its parliaments and peculiar laws; but since the union of the two kingdoms, they have but one parliament, to which Scotland sends its peers and representatives.

Q. What is its present government?

A. It is now governed by a viceroy, or commissary, sent by the King of England, for the administration of ordinary affairs.

Q. What

Q. What

Q. What is the predominant religion?

A. The Presbyterian; nevertheless there are some cities which still retain the titles of archbishopricks and bishopricks.

Q. Have they any rivers?

A. The chief rivers are the Tweed, the Clyde and the Tay; which last divides Scotland into northern and southern divisions; each of them comprehend several counties.

Q. What is the name of its capital?

A. Edinburgh, in the southern division; it is a large populous city, and the residence of the Lord High Commissioner.

Q. What other cities are there in the southern part?

A. Glasgow, and St. Andrew's, two ancient archbishopricks; the former is situated in the most fruitful part of the kingdom.

Q. What cities are in the north?

A. Aberdeen is the principal; it is a sea-port, and a trading city.

Q. Are there any islands near Scotland?

A. It is nearly surrounded by islands, divided into three classes, the Western, the Orknies, and the Islands of Shetland on the north.

Q. In what part of the globe is IRELAND?

A. It is an island situated west of England, from which it is only divided by St. George's Channel.

Q. What is its produce?

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A. It

A. It produces the same things as England; but neither its trade nor population are so great, and there are but few manufactories. As they abound in cattle, hides and tallow, butter and salt beef, are the principal things they export.

Q. To whom did Ireland formerly belong?

A. Ireland was formerly an independent state, and had its own kings; but by a bull being granted by the Pope, Adrian IV. to Henry II. King of England, he took possession of that island in the year 1185.

Q. What title did his successors take?

A. The kings of England at first were satisfied with the name of Lords of Ireland; Henry VIII. was the first who took the title of King.

Q. How is Ireland governed?

A. It is governed by its own parliament, and a Viceroy or Lord Lieutenant, appointed by the King of England; but of late Ireland is much less dependent on the laws and parliament of England than it was formerly.

Q. Have they any rivers?

A. The principal river in Ireland is the Shannon, which runs from north to south.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. The established religion is the same as in England; but there are still a great number of Roman Catholics.

Q. How is Ireland divided?

A. It

A. It is divided into four principal counties, viz. Leinster, east; Connaught, west; Ulster, north; and Munster, south.

Q. Which is the capital of Ireland?

A. Dublin, in the county of Leinster, is the capital; it is a large, well-built city, the residence of the Lord Lieutenant, and an archbishoprick.

Q. What cities are found in the county of Connaught?

A. Galloway is the principal city; it is rich, populous, and a sea-port.

Q. What cities in Ulster?

A. The archbishoprick of Armagh; and Londonderry, a fortified place.

Q. What cities do you meet with in Munster?

A. The principal cities are Limerick, on the Shannon; and Corke, which is a sea-port, and a city of great trade.

LESSON VI.

Of DENMARK.

Q. WHAT constitutes the kingdom of Denmark?

A. The states of Denmark proper, Norway, and the Island of Iceland.

C 2

Q. How

Q. How do you divide Denmark proper ?

A. It is divided into terra firma, which is also called Jutland, and into several islands.

Q. Where is Jutland situated ?

A. It is situated in the north of Germany, and extends from south to north in the form of a peninsula, having the Baltic and the islands of Denmark on the east.

Q. Of what nature is the country ?

A. The air is cold, and the soil fruitful: the country abounds in hills and lakes; it has plenty of game and fish, and also some few mines.

Q. What do they export ?

A. Oxen and horses, of which great numbers are sent to Germany and Holland. Of late some manufactures have been established there.

Q. Whence came the name of Jutland ?

A. It takes its name from the Jutes, a people who formerly inhabited that country.

Q. From whence derives the name of Denmark ?

A. That name comes from a king named Dan, who reigned before the birth of Christ.

Q. At what period does the history of that country begin ?

A. Their history cannot be properly ascertained before their conversion to the Christian religion; it is therefore only recorded since that period.

Q. How many families have reigned since that time ?

A. Two

A. Two only have reigned successively, viz. that of the ancient kings of the Danes, and the family of Oldenbourg, who now occupy the throne.

Q. Who are the most remarkable of the first family?

A. The most renowned of the ancient family, were Harold, Canute the Great, and Queen Margaret.

Q. What do you remark of Harold?

A. He was the first Christian King of Denmark; and in the year 948 he founded several bishopricks in his dominions.

Q. Was Canute remarkable for any achievement?

A. Yes; he conquered England and Norway in 1017; but his successors did not keep his conquests.

Q. Who was Margaret?

A. Margaret was Queen of Denmark, and by her courage and resolution deservedly gained the appellation of the Northern Semiramis.

Q. For what was she remarkable?

A. As she was in possession of Sweden, Denmark and Norway, she caused an act to be drawn up at Calmar, in the year 1397, which was for ever to unite the three kingdoms; but the Swedes soon after elected a king of their own.

Q. What is the origin of the house of Oldenbourg?

A. The origin of that family comes from Germany; and it derives its name from a county of Westphalia.

Q. How long has it reigned?

A. It has reigned in Denmark ever since the year 1448; and has given, without interruption, thirteen sovereigns to that kingdom.

Q. What kings are the most remarkable in that family?

A. Christierne II. who, on account of his cruelty, was surnamed the Nero of the North; Frederick I. who in 1627 introduced the Lutheran religion in his dominions; and Frederick III. under whose reign the government was changed, in 1660.

Q. Who is the reigning king?

A. Christian VII. who succeeded his father, Frederick V. in 1766.

Q. How is Denmark governed?

A. Denmark is a monarchy; formerly the king was elective, and his power greatly restrained; but the states have made the crown hereditary, and the king an absolute monarch.

Q. What is the established religion?

A. The Lutheran is the reigning religion in Denmark; nevertheless, subordination among the clergy is preserved, and the king names superintendants, who act as bishops.

Q. What rivers are there in Denmark?

A. There are no considerable rivers; we shall therefore refrain making mention of them.

Q. Has

Q. Has the king any particular tribute paid to him?

A. Yes; great part of his revenue proceeds from a tribute paid by all ships that pass the strait of the Baltic, called the Sound.

Q. Where is that strait situated?

A. It is situated between Denmark and Sweden; it joins the Ocean to the Baltic, and it is the only passage for ships that sail from one of those seas to the other.

LESSON VII.

DENMARK *continued.*

Q. WHAT constitutes the terra firma of Denmark?

A. It consists of Jutland proper, situate on the north; and the Dutchy of Sleswick, on the south.

Q. How is Jutland divided?

A. Jutland proper, is divided into four bishopricks; Albourn, in the north; Aarhus, in the east; Wyburg, in the west; and Rypen, in the south: each of them bears the name of its capital.

Q. Which is the principal city?

C 4

A. The

A. The most considerable city is Rypen, a sea-port, where the Dutch carry on a great trade.

Q. To whom does the dutchy of Sleswick belong?

A. The dutchy of Sleswick was formerly divided between the King of Denmark, and the Duke of Holstein; but since the treaty made with Sweden in 1720, it belongs entirely to the former.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The capital is Sleswick, a trading city; the castle of Gottorp, which was the residence of the ancient dukes; and Frederickstadt, which is a fortified town, are also found in this dutchy.

Q. Was not something extraordinary projected there?

A. Yes; the King of Denmark undertook to dig a canal through this dutchy, in order to join the German Sea to the Baltic, and consequently avoid the passage of the Sound.

Q. Which are the Danish islands?

A. The two largest islands of Denmark, are Zealand and Fionia; there are three lesser, called Laland, Langeland and Faloter.

Q. Which is the capital of Denmark?

A. Copenhagen, in the island of Zealand; it is a bishoprick, a sea-port, a fine trading city, and the residence of the sovereign.

Q. What is to be seen in Zealand?

A. The city of Roschild, which is the place where their sovereigns are interred; and Cronenbourg,

bourg, a fortress built on the straits of the Sound, where the tribute is paid by the ships that enter the Baltic.

Q. Which is the capital of Fionia?

A. The bishoprick of Odensee, a populous and trading city.

Q. What is the situation of NORWAY?

A. Norway is the most northern country of Europe, it extends along the frozen ocean; has Sweden to the east, and Denmark on the south.

Q. What is the produce of the country?

Q. This kingdom is ill peopled, and produces little, except pitch and fir-trees, which they export for making masts; they have a whale and cod fishery; of the latter they make stock-fish.

Q. Whose property is Norway?

A. For a long time it was governed by its own kings, but was united to Denmark by the marriage of Margaret, daughter of Valdemar III. with Haquin, King of Norway, in the year 1350.

Q. What happened after that?

A. The Norwegians revolted against the house of Oldenbourg; but after a bloody battle, which they lost, they were obliged to submit, and since that, Norway has been a province of Denmark.

Q. How is Norway governed?

A. It is governed by a viceroy sent by the King of Denmark.

Q. Have they any rivers?

A. Their

A. Their most remarkable river is the Glommo, on the south: there are several lakes; and towards the north, and near the coast, they have a whirlpool called Maelstrom, which has a most extraordinary current.

Q. What is their religion?

A. They profess the same religion as Denmark, the Lutheran.

Q. Which is the capital of Norway?

A. The capital is Christiania, formerly Oslo; it is the residence of the Viceroy.

Q. What other cities have they?

A. They have Drontheim in the north; it is an archbishoprick: they have Berghen in the west; it is a sea-port where they carry on all their trade; and Frederickshall, a fortified town,

Q. What is the situation of ICELAND?

A. Iceland is situated on the west-north-west of Norway.

Q. How is their climate?

A. The air is intensely cold, and the soil of little produce; they have some pasture, and they export sulphur, hides and salt-fish.

Q. How are the natives?

A. They are short and stout,—they live upon wild deer and fish, which is brought them on the ice; their religion is the Lutheran.

Q. Is there any thing remarkable on the island?

A. Nothing, except Mount Hecla, a volcano, or burning mountain, which emits fire and smoke.

Q. Are

Q. Are there any cities on the island?

A. No; they have only a few borough-towns, the chief of which are Hola and Skalhott; the latter is the residence of the Danish governor.

LESSON VIII.

Of SWEDEN.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Sweden?

A. Sweden is situated in the Baltic, which is its boundary on the south: it has Russia on the east, and Norway west and north.

Q. Of what nature is the climate?

A. The air is cold and unwholesome, but the soil tolerable fruitful;—they breed a great quantity of cattle;—they have but two seasons, a winter which lasts nine months, and a summer of three.

Q. What is the produce of the country?

A. They have mines of copper, which are held in great estimation; they have also iron mines, and furnish other nations with masts and furs.

Q. How was Sweden governed formerly?

A. It was formerly an elective kingdom, but was rendered hereditary in favour of Gustavus Vasa,

Vasa, who delivered Sweden from the tyranny of Christierne II. king of Denmark, in the year 1523. Gustavus abolished the Roman Catholic religion in his kingdom, and introduced the Lutheran reformation.

Q. Who was his successor?

A. His eldest son, named Eric; but having, through his cruelty, rendered himself odious to his subjects, he was dethroned by his younger brother, John III.

Q. What happened after?

A. Sigismund, son of John III. having been elected king of Poland, endeavoured to abolish the Protestant religion, and re-establish Popery in his dominions of Sweden; but was deposed by his uncle, Charles, in 1604, who reigned by the name of Charles IX.

Q. Who succeeded him?

A. Gustavus Adolphus succeeded him in the year 1612; he was famous for his courage and virtue; he sustained war against all his neighbours, and considerably extended his dominions; in 1623, he took up arms in defence of the Protestant princes of Germany, gained several battles over the generals of the Emperor, and was killed in an engagement at Lutzen, in which his troops were victorious.

Q. Had that prince any children?

A. He had but one daughter, named Christiana, who succeeded him,—but being passionately fond of
of

of the sciences, she abdicated the crown in 1654, turned Roman Catholic, and retired to Rome, where she died.

Q. Who was her successor?

A. Charles Gustavus, her cousin, of the house of Palatine, and Duke of Deux Ponts; he reigned by the name of Charles X. After him his son, Charles XI. ascended the throne, and invaded the whole authority, of which, before that time, the states partook with him.

Q. Who reigned after him?

A. He was succeeded, in the year 1697, by his son, Charles XII. surnamed the Alexander of the north, and well known for the many wars he sustained against his neighbours.

Q. Relate some particulars of his reign.

A. He besieged Copenhagen, and forced the king of Denmark to conclude a peace; after that, with 7000 men, he beat 100,000 Muscovites who besieged Narva. In short, he attacked Augustus, king of Poland, and compelled the Poles to elect another king; he afterwards attacked the Czar Peter in his own dominions,—and in 1709 lost the battle of Pultowa—retreated into Turkey—returned to Pomerania—mustered the remains of his troops,—and, in 1718, was killed at the siege of Frederickshall, in Norway.

Q. What happened after his death?

A. Ulrica Eleanor, his sister, was proclaimed Queen of Sweden, but resigned the crown to Frederick

Frederick V. her husband, then Landgrave of Hesse-Cassel.

Q. Did the states consent to that?

A. Yes; the states, who had then recovered their former rights, consented to this resignation, on condition that Frederick should renounce the hereditary right of succession. He dying without issue, the states, in 1743, named Adolphus Frederick, of the house of Holstein, for his successor.

Q. How is Sweden governed?

A. It is a monarchy; but for a long time the king's authority had experienced great restrictions from the states, which are composed of deputies from the nobility, the clergy, the burghesses, and the peasants.

Q. Who reigns at present?

A. Adolphus Frederick dying in 1771, Gustavus, his eldest son, succeeded him, and now reigns with great glory.

Q. What changes have taken place since the commencement of his reign?

A. The states having, by an abuse of power, infringed on that of the king, that prince has re-assumed all his rights, and the form of government is now become purely monarchical, as it was under Gustavus Vasa.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The established religion is the Protestant Lutheran, on the same footing as in Denmark.

Q. Are

Q. Are there any rivers in Sweden?

A. None of any remark,—but a great number of lakes are found all over the country.

LESSON IX.

SWEDEN *continued.*

Q. How is Sweden divided?

A. The gulf of Bothnia, which is a part of the Baltic, separates Sweden into two divisions, the one west and the other east.

Q. What provinces are comprised in the western division?

A. It comprehends three provinces, viz. Sweden proper, in the middle,—Gothia, in the south,—and Lapland, in the north.

Q. How many did the eastern contain?

A. It comprehended three also; Finland, north of the Baltic; Ingria and Livonia, south of the same sea.

Q. To whom do these three provinces belong?

A. At present Sweden possesses but one part of Finland; the remainder of these three provinces belongs to Russia: we will speak of them in the ensuing lesson.

Q. Which

Q. Which is the capital of Sweden?

A. Stockholm, situated in Sweden proper; it is a sea-port, and the ordinary residence of the king; it is a large, populous city, built upon wooden piles.

Q. What other cities are met with in that province?

A. Upsal, an archbishoprick; Coperberg, famous for its mines of copper; and Tornea, at the extremity of the gulf of Bothnia, in the Nord-land.

Q. What is to be observed concerning Tornea?

A. It was there that the astronomers sent by the king of France, in 1736, made their observations, in order to ascertain the exact form of the earth.

Q. How is Gothia divided?

A. Into three parts; the eastern, the western, and the southern.

Q. Which are the principal cities?

A. Calmar, in the east,—it is a sea-port and fortified place; Gothenbourg, a bishoprick, in the west; and in the south, Lunden, a bishoprick,—Christianstadt, a trading city,—and Carlscron, where are their arsenals and magazines of naval stores.

Q. How is Lapland in general divided?

A. Into as many parts as there are sovereigns who have pretensions on that country,—and those are three.

Q. Which are they?

A. Swedish Lapland, on the south; Russian Lapland, in the east; and Norwégian Lapland, in the north.

Q. What is to be observed of Lapland?

A. That the air is intensely cold, and the soil almost barren; the natives are of a very low stature, and live chiefly on game and fish, of which the country abounds.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. Those subject to Sweden and Denmark, profess the Lutheran religion; those belonging to Russia are of the Greek church,—and there are yet some idolaters.

Q. Have they any extraordinary animal?

A. Yes; they have a familiar domestic animal, called the rein-deer, which is of great service to the natives; they make use of them in their travels,—they eat their flesh,—and clothe themselves with their hides.

Q. Are there any cities in Lapland?

A. No; in Norwégian Lapland they have the castle of Wardhuys, where a tribute is paid by all ships bound to the White Sea.

Q. Which is the capital of Finland?

A. The capital of Swedish Finland is Abo, a sea-port in the south; they have also Nyssadt, where treaties of peace were concluded between the Swedes and Russians in 1721 and 1743; and they possess also Helfingfort, which is a sea-port.

D

Q. What

Q. What islands belong to Sweden?

A. They have the islands of Gothland and Oeland, which lay near the coasts of Gothia; the capital of the first is Wisby, formerly a flourishing city, but not considerable at present.

LESSON X.

R U S S I A.

Q. What is Russia?

A. Russia, formerly called Muscovy, is a vast empire, which extends both into Europe and Asia: it is for that reason divided into European and Asiatic Russia.

Q. What are the boundaries of European Russia?

A. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean,—on the east by Asiatic Russia,—by Tartary on the south,—and by Poland and Sweden on the west.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. The northern part is extremely cold, covered by lakes and forests; but the southern part is fruitful and of great produce.

Q. What

Q. What

Q. What do other nations import from Russia?

A. They import precious furs,—such as ermine and sable,—hides, flax, and masts for ships.

Q. What is to be remarked in the history of Russia?

A. As till the beginning of the present century the Russians were an ignorant people, we shall make no remarks on their history before that period.

Q. Who was then the reigning prince?

A. The Czar Peter, who, by his indefatigable exertions, introduced arts and sciences in his dominions, and justly acquired the name of Great.

Q. What were his exploits?

A. He travelled into most parts of Europe for his instruction; he drew a great number of enlightened foreigners into Russia,—and trained his subjects to military sciences, commerce and navigation.

Q. With whom did he wage war?

A. He sustained a long war against Charles XII. king of Sweden; but after losing several battles, he at last totally defeated the Swedish army at Pultowa; and, in 1721, concluded with Sweden a very advantageous peace for Russia.

Q. Who reigned after him?

A. After his demise the throne of Russia was alternately occupied by Catherine, his relict,—by Peter II. his grandson,—and by the Princess Anne, his niece, with her son, John III.

Q. Who succeeded to this last?

A. The empire devolved, in 1762, to Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great; she bequeathed the crown to her nephew, the Duke of Holstein, who died after having reigned a short time by the name of Peter III.

Q. Who occupies the throne at this day?

A. Catherine II. widow of Peter III. a princess endowed with very eminent qualities; she has a son, who, as heir to the empire, has taken the name of Prince of all the Russias.

Q. Has there occurred any remarkable event since her reign?

A. Having declared war against the Turks, she has gained several victories, and obtained many advantages for her subjects, such as the liberty of commerce, and having different establishments in the Black Sea.

Q. What is the form of government in Russia?

A. The government is entirely monarchical, and even despotic; the crown is hereditary in the female line in default of male issue.

Q. What is the sovereign's title?

A. Formerly the sovereign had no other title than that of Grand Duke of Muscovy, but at present he is called Czar or Emperor of all the Russias.

Q. Is he very powerful?

A. Yes; and as he is indebted to none for power, he may at his own option choose his successor, without regard to age or sex.

Q. What

Q. What is the religion of the Russians ?

A. The established religion is that of the Greek Christians, who heretofore acknowledged a chief in the person of the Patriarch of Moscow; but the Czar Peter abolished that dignity, and united it in the person of the sovereign.

Q. What rivers are there in Russia ?

A. There are four very capital rivers, viz. the Wolga, which runs south, and discharges itself into the Caspian Sea; the Dwina, which falls into the White Sea, which is a gulf of the Frozen Ocean; the Don and the Nieper, which discharge themselves south into the Black Sea.

Q. Have they any lakes ?

A. They have several; but the two principal are those of Ladoga and Onega, which are the two largest in Europe.

Q. How is European Russia divided ?

A. Into three distinct parts, the northern and southern, which are separated by the river Wolga; and the conquests made on the Swedes on the west.

Q. Which was the ancient capital of Russia ?

A. The ancient capital of the whole empire was Moscow, on the river Moskva, in the southern division; it is a very large city, but ill built.

Q. Is there any thing remarkable in that city ?

A. The most remarkable things are, the imperial palace, the patriarchal church, and a dis-

penfary founded by Peter the Great, which is esteemed the fineft in Europe.

Q. Which is the modern capital ?

A. St. Peterfburg, in Ingria, at the bottom of the gulf of Finland, and on the river Neva, the refidence of the fovereign.

Q. What is to be obferved of that city ?

A. It is a large, populous and trading city ; it has a citadel and an academy ; it takes its name from Peter the Great, who laid the foundation of it in the year 1703 ; it is built on piles.

Q. What other cities do you find in the northern divifion ?

A. We find the city of Novogorod, on the lake Ilmen, the feat of the metropolitan ; and Archangel, a fea-port at the mouth of the river Dwina, where they carry on a confiderable trade in furs.

Q. What cities in the fouthern divifion ?

A. We find Smolensko and Belgorod, both fortified cities, on the Nieper ; we alfo remark Azoph, at the mouth of the river Don, near the Black Sea ; it was formerly a very confiderable city, but by the peace of Belgrade, in 1739, it was ftipulated that the fortifications fhould be demolifhed, and the city to remain fubject to Ruffia.

Q. What country is fituate in the fouth of Ruffia ?

A. In the fouth of that empire we find Ukraine, one of the moft fruitful countries in Europe ; the
inha-

inhabitants are called Cossacks, and are at this day almost all subject to Russia.

Q. Which are the principal cities of Ukraine?

A. We have Kiow, an archbishoprick and fortified city, on the Nieper; and Pultowa, become famous by the defeat of Charles XII. in 1709.

Q. What is to be met with near Ukraine?

A. We find New Servia, a province situated between the Bog and the Niester, peopled within these few years by a colony of strangers.

Q. What provinces have been conquered from the Swedes?

A. Livonia, Ingria and Carelia, which are part of Eastern Finland; they were ceded to Russia by the treaty of Nyfadt, in 1721.

Q. What do you remark of Livonia?

A. That it is a very fruitful, populous country; they trade considerably in grain and flax; it formerly belonged to the Teutonic Knights.

Q. What cities does it contain?

A. Riga, the capital; it is a sea-port, and a large trading city; we also find Revel, a sea-port, and Narva, a fortified place in the east.

Q. Which is the capital of Ingria?

A. The capital is Oreska or Sleutelbourg, a fortified city, situated on an island at the entrance of Lake Ladoga.

Q. Which is the capital of Carelia?

A. Wibourg, on the Gulf of Finland; it is a trading city.

Q. What islands are on the coast?

A. The islands belonging to Livonia, are Oesel and Dagho.

LESSON XI.

Of POLAND.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Poland?

A. The states of Poland are bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea,—on the east by Russia,—by Hungary on the south,—and by Germany on the west.

Q. What countries do they contain?

A. They contain two countries, who obey the same sovereign, viz. the kingdom of Poland, and the dutchy of Lithuania.

Q. Of what nature is the country?

A. The air is temperate; it is a flat country, contains very extensive plains, is very productive in corn, and abounds in rich pasture.

Q. What does Poland export?

A. It

A. It exports wheat, wool, salt, honey, wax and flax.

Q. What were their former sovereigns ?

A. They formerly bore the title of duke, but they afterwards took the name of king.

Q. How may their sovereigns be distinguished ?

A. They are stated under four classes; first, the dukes of Poland; second, the Piaſtes, deſcendants of a peaſant; third, the Jagellon Lithuanians; fourth, that of the kings, taken from different families.

Q. Which are the moſt remarkable kings of the laſt claſs ?

A. They are Henry de Valois, John Sobieſki, Auguſtus II. Staniflaus, and Auguſtus III.

Q. What is to be remarked of Henry de Valois ?

A. He was brother to Charles IX. king of France, and was elected king of Poland in 1573; but abdicated the crown to ſucceed his brother, and reigned in France by the name of Henry III.

Q. Who was John Sobieſki ?

A. He was a Poliſh nobleman, and was elected king in 1675, becauſe of his ſuperior valour; he reſcued Vienna, in Auſtria, which the Turks beſieged in 1683.

Q. Who was Auguſtus II. ?

A. Auguſtus II. was elector of Saxony; he was crowned in 1697, notwithstanding the vigorous oppo-

opposition of the Prince of Conti's party, who was his competitor.

Q. With whom was he at war ?

A. With Charles XII. of Sweden, who in 1704 forced him to retreat to Saxony, and caused Stanislaus Leckzinski, a Polish nobleman, to be elected in his place; but Charles XII. having been defeated at Pultowa, Stanislaus was forced to retire, and Augustus resumed the crown, which he held till his death.

Q. Who succeeded him ?

A. Augustus III. his son, supported by Russia, was elected king in 1733, in spite of all the endeavours of Stanislaus and his son-in-law, the king of France.

Q. What became of Stanislaus ?

A. He retained the title of king of Poland, and was duke of Lorrain, as we will show hereafter.

Q. Who is the reigning prince ?

A. Augustus being dead, the Polanders elected Count Poniatowski, a nobleman of their nation, in 1764; he reigns to this day by the name of Stanislaus II.

Q. What events have occurred under his reign ?

A. There have been many fomentations, which have occasioned an extraordinary revolution in the kingdom, which has been dismembered of several provinces.

Q. Who claimed those provinces ?

A. The

A. The Emperor of Germany, the Empress of Russia, and the King of Prussia, laid claim to them, as being formerly a part of their respective dominions; and they have been ceded since by treaties.

Q. How is Poland governed?

A. It is the only elective kingdom in Europe; it is nevertheless monarchical; but the authority of the king is greatly restrained by that of the diet and senate; for which reason it is sometimes called a republick.

Q. What is the diet?

A. It is an assembly of the senators, and a deputation from all the nobles of the kingdom.

Q. What power has the diet?

A. The king can transact no important affairs without their consent; they have the right of electing their king and administering to him the oath, that he will observe the fundamental laws of the kingdom.

Q. Where does the diet assemble?

A. They generally assemble at Warsaw, or at Grodno: but when their object is to elect a king, they assemble in a plain near Warsaw, and all the deputies are on horseback.

Q. What further remarks on the diet?

A. They usually meet every two years; they cannot remain assembled more than six weeks, and the opposition of one single deputy is sufficient to hinder them from coming to any resolution.

Q. How

Q. How are the peasants treated?

A. The Polish nobility assume an absolute power over them, and their condition is little better than slavery.

Q. What is the religion in Poland?

A. They are Roman Catholics; but the Greek Church, Protestants and Jews are tolerated.

Q. Which are the principal rivers in Poland?

A. There are five considerable rivers; in the south they have the Neiper, the Bog and the Niester, which discharge themselves into the Black Sea; in the north, the Vistula and the Niemen, which fall into the Baltic,

LESSON XII.

POLAND *continued.*

Q. How is Poland divided?

A. Into four large provinces; Upper Poland, Lower Poland, Little Russia on the south, and Prussia in the north: they altogether contain thirty-seven palatinates.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Cracow is looked upon to be the capital of the whole kingdom; it is situated on the Vistula,
in

in Upper Poland; it has a cathedral, and it is there that the kings are crowned.

Q. What other cities are there in Upper Poland?

A. There are in the same province Lublin, and Sandomir a trading city; and Wiclitzka, a little city, famous for its salt mines.

Q. What cities in Lower Poland?

A. Warsaw on the Vistula; a large, well built city, the ordinary residence of the king; Gnesna, an archbishoprick, whose archbishop is primate of the whole kingdom, and viceroy in the interregnum; there is also the bishoprick of Posenia.

Q. What cities in Little Russia?

A. There is an archbishoprick named Leopold, which is the capital; and Kamienieck, in the south, the strongest place in the kingdom.

Q. How is Prussia divided?

A. Prussia is divided into two parts; first, Polish Prussia, in the west; and German Prussia, or the kingdom of Prussia, in the east; of this we shall treat separately hereafter.

Q. Which is the capital of Polish Prussia?

A. Dantzick, a sea-port at the entrance of the Vistula; it is a trading city, and well fortified.

Q. How is that city governed?

A. Its government is that of a republick, under the protection of Poland, to whom it pays a tribute; the king exercises certain prerogatives, and the inhabitants are mostly Lutherans.

Q. What

Q. What is met with near this city?

A. We find the rich Abbey of Oliva, where a treaty of peace was concluded in the year 1660.

Q. What others are there?

A. We also find in that province Elbing, a trading city; Marienbourg, a fortified town on the Vistula; and two others, Thorn and Culm.

Q. What is the grand dutchy of Lithuania?

A. That dutchy is situate east of Poland, the country is covered with forests and fens; from thence it comes that it is neither fertile nor populous.

Q. Had Lithuania its particular sovereigns?

A. The family of the Jagellons were formerly sovereigns there: but one of that family having married Hedvige, a Polish princess, he was elected king of Poland, and embraced the Christian religion in the year 1386.

Q. What occurred after that?

A. In the year 1401, the two states formed a perpetual union, but on condition that Lithuania should be looked upon as an allied and independent province of Poland, on the same footing as Poland, and acknowledging the same sovereign.

Q. How is Lithuania divided?

A. Into three parts; Lithuania proper, in the west; Russian Lithuania, in the east; and Samogitia, in the north.

Q. Which is the capital of Lithuania?

A. The capital of all the country is Wilna, in Lithuania proper, a large, but ill-built city; there is also Grodno, where the diet assemble once in six years; and Rasiem, capital of Samogitia.

Q. Which are the provinces claimed and ceded to the three powers already mentioned?

A. The emperor of Germany gained part of Upper Poland and Little Russia; the empress of Russia the greater part of Lithuania; and the king of Prussia Ducal Prussia, with a part of the neighbouring palatinates.

Q. What is found towards the north?

A. In the north of Lithuania we find Courland, situated on the Baltic: it has its particular sovereign; but it is a feudal tenure dependent on Poland.

Q. To whom did this dutchy belong?

A. It appertained to the house of Ketler, the last of which family died in 1737.

Q. What ensued?

A. The Czarina Anne caused Count de Biron to be elected duke of Courland; and after his disgrace, a prince of the house of Brunswick succeeded him; but Poland would not ratify his election.

Q. To whom did this dutchy devolve?

A. After having been governed many years by the states of the country, it fell to the lot of Charles, prince of Saxony, and son of Augustus III. but he did not enjoy it long.

Q. Who

Q. Who is the present duke?

A. The Count de Biron having been recalled from his exile, recovered the dutchy in 1763, with the consent of Poland, and his son is now in possession of it.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The greater part of the inhabitants profess Lutheranism.

Q. How do they divide this dutchy?

A. It is divided into Courland proper and Semigallia.

Q. Which is the capital of Courland?

A. Mittau, in the Semigallia, the ordinary residence of the dukes; there is also Goldingen, in Courland proper.

LESSON XIII.

Of the KINGDOM of PRUSSIA.

Q. How is the kingdom of Prussia situated?

A. The kingdom of Prussia is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea,—on the east by Lithuania,—by Poland on the south,—and on the west by Polish Prussia.

Q. Of

Q. Of what nature is the country ?

A. It is a temperate climate; the soil is fertile, especially in good pasture, on which they feed a great quantity of cattle; they have lakes and rivers, which abound in fish.

Q. What do they chiefly export ?

A. Their commerce is chiefly corn, wool, honey and wax; on their coast they find a great quantity of yellow amber.

Q. To whom did it formerly belong ?

A. The Teutonic Knights invaded Prussia in the thirteenth century, and established there the Christian religion; but in the fifteenth, part of it submitted to Poland.

Q. What happened after ?

A. In 1525, Albert of Brandenburg, Grand Master of the Order, embraced the Reformation of Luther, with several of his knights, and was so successful as to make Prussia a secular principality.

Q. On what conditions was it granted him ?

A. He took the title of duke, on condition of his paying homage to Poland for that part of Prussia in his possession; and which, on that account, is called Ducal Prussia.

Q. To whom did this dutchy devolve after him ?

A. It devolved, in 1675, to the electors of Brandenburg; and Frederick William, surnamed the Great, was acknowledged by the treaty of Velau, sovereign of Prussia, and independent of Poland.

E

Q. What

Q. What changes have happened since ?

A. In the year 1701, Frederick, his son, with the consent of the emperor, erected the dutchy into a kingdom, and placed the crown on his own head. At the peace of Utrecht in 1713, he was acknowledged as king by the contracting powers, but did not live to sign the treaty.

Q. Who succeeded him ?

A. His son, Frederick William; and he was himself succeeded by his son, Charles Frederick II. who was crowned May 20, 1740.

Q. What do you remark of that prince ?

A. That after having sustained a long and bloody war against several confederate powers, he preserved his dominions entire, and obtained a very advantageous peace in 1763.

Q. Is he still living ?

A. No; he died in the year 1786; and his nephew, Frederick William, is now the reigning king.

Q. How is Prussia governed ?

A. Prussia is a monarchy, and the sovereign absolute; there are several councils for the administration of affairs.

Q. What religion do they profess ?

A. The greatest part profess the Lutheran religion; but there are a great number of free-thinkers.

Q. What rivers have they in Prussia ?

A. The

A. The principal rivers are, the Vistula, the Pregel, and the Memel; all of which fall into the Baltic, in the north.

Q. What lakes are there?

A. Two very considerable, called the Curisch-haf and the Frisch-haf:—the first is separated from the Baltic but by a neck of land.

Q. How is Prussia divided?

A. The whole kingdom is divided into eight circles or provinces, having each their particular council; the chief of those are Samland, Natan-gen, and Hockerland.

Q. Which is the capital of Prussia?

A. The capital of all the country is Konings-berg, on the Pregel; it is an university, and a large trading city, and well fortified,—with a citadel, the residence of a governor sent by the king.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. The other large cities are, Pilau, a fortified town; Memel, a sea-port in the east,—and Velau, where a treaty of peace was signed with Poland, in 1658.

LESSON XIV.

Of HUNGARY.

Q. WHAT countries do we unite in this article?

A. We shall unite the kingdom of Bohemia, that of Hungary, and the principality of Transylvania;—all countries which obey the same master, and which are neighbouring to each other.

1st. Of BOHEMIA.

Q. What is the situation of Bohemia?

A. Bohemia is bounded by Germany north and west,—by Poland in the east,—and by Austria and Hungary on the south.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. The air is temperate and wholesome; the soil produces corn, pasture and saffron; the southern parts give them wine,—and the whole country abounds in cattle and game.

Q. What else is found in that kingdom?

A. They have mineral waters, and mines of different metals.

Q. How was Bohemia governed formerly?

A. It was formerly an elective kingdom, and was long governed by its own sovereigns, which were taken from divers families.

Q. To whom was it afterwards allotted?

A. To

A. To the house of Austria, by the marriage of Ferdinand I. with Anna, sister and heiress of Lewis II. king of Bohemia, in 1526.

Q. To whom does it now belong?

A. At the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, Ferdinand and his family were confirmed in the hereditary right to the kingdom; and by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was acknowledged to belong to Maria-Theresa, Empress of Germany; the Empress dying in 1781, it devolved to her son, Joseph II.; and, at his demise, which happened February 20, 1790, Leopold II. his brother, the present emperor, succeeded him in all his hereditary rights, and was elected emperor the 30th of September of the same year.

Q. How is that kingdom governed?

A. Its government is monarchical; the states of the country are composed of the bishops, the princes, and the deputies of the cities: they assemble once every year.

Q. What religion do they profess in Bohemia?

A. The established religion is the Roman Catholic; there are still some Protestants, of which the number was very considerable formerly: they had lost the free exercise of their religion, but Joseph II. established a general toleration throughout the kingdom.

Q. What rivers have they?

E 3

A. The

A. The rivers peculiar to Bohemia are, the Moldau, which rises in the north, and falls into the Elbe; and the Morave, which runs south, and enters the Danube.

Q. What countries are comprehended in Bohemia?

A. It comprehends four provinces; Bohemia proper, in the west; Lusatia, in the north; Silesia, in the east; and Moravia, in the south.

Q. What part does the emperor possess?

A. He is in possession of Bohemia proper, Moravia, and part of Silesia.

Q. To whom does the remainder belong?

A. The king of Prussia having conquered Silesia in 1742, the greatest part was ceded to him by the treaty of Dresden, in 1745. Lusatia has been for a long time past in the possession of the elector of Saxony, as a fœdal tenure from Bohemia.

Q. Which is the capital of Bohemia proper?

A. Prague, on the Moldau, is the capital:—it is an archbishoprick, has an university, and is a large, well-built city; it was taken and retaken several times in the war of 1740: besides, there is Egra, a fortified town in the west; Carlsbad and Toplitz, well known for their mineral baths.

Q. Which is the capital of Lusatia?

A. The capital is Bautzen, or Budissen, a large and populous city; there is also a city called Gorlitz.

Q. Which is the capital of Silesia?

A. Breslau,

A. Breslau, on the Oder, a bishoprick and university; this city is considerable for its linen manufactory, and trade in that article: there is also Glatz, the capital of the county of that name, a fortified city,—besides Schweidnitz and Glogau.

Q. What other territories does the house of Austria possess in Silesia.

A. It has a part of Upper Silesia, the capital of which is Troppau.

Q. Which is the capital of Moravia?

A. The bishoprick of Olmutz, a fortified city; there is also the city of Brinn.

LESSON XV.

2d. Of HUNGARY.

Q. WHAT are the boundaries of Hungary?

A. Hungary is bounded on the north by Poland,—on the east and south by Turkey,—and on the west by Germany.

Q. Of what nature is that country?

A. The climate is very wholesome, except in the southern parts, where there are many bogs; the soil is fertile in every thing,—and its wines are more esteemed than any other in Europe.

Q. What is further remarked?

A. That Hungary is in general a populous country, and well stocked with cattle and game; it has mines of gold, silver and salt,—and it contains a great number of fortified places.

Q. How was Hungary governed?

A. It was formerly elective; it had its particular sovereigns, of whom several have been famous in history,

Q. To whom did the kingdom belong after that?

A. It devolved to the house of Austria, by the marriage of Frederick I. with Anna, sister to Lewis, of whom we have already spoken, who was at the same time king of Hungary and Bohemia, and who was killed at the battle of Mohacz, in 1526.

Q. Who disputed him the crown?

A. His competitor was the Vaivode, or sovereign of Transylvania, who called the Turks to his aid.

Q. What was the event?

A. An agreement was made between the Vaivode and Ferdinand, by which the former was to reign after the latter; but the Vaivode dying first, his widow, with a view of making sure of the crown for her son, put herself under the protection of the Turks.

Q. What ensued?

A. Hungary,

A. Hungary, for near two centuries, became the theatre of a most bloody war between the Austrians and the Turks, who had made themselves masters of the greatest part of the kingdom.

Q. Did the Turks keep their possessions in Hungary?

A. No; after having lost most of their conquests by the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, they were at last finally driven out of it by the Austrian army, commanded by Prince Eugene of Savoy, in the year 1716.

Q. How was that war brought to an issue?

A. By a treaty of peace concluded at Passarowitz, in 1718, by which the Turks renounced all pretensions to the kingdom of Hungary.

Q. Who does it belong to at present?

A. Hungary became hereditary in the house of Austria, by the declaration of the states in 1687,—and belongs at this day to the emperor Leopold II. as we said before: it was first confirmed to the Empress Maria-Theresa, by the Pragmatic Sanction, which is a disposition or law of the Emperor Charles VI. the last prince of that house; who, having no son, instituted his eldest daughter heiress of all his possessions, in 1740.

Q. Did any one oppose that inheritance?

A. Yes; it was opposed by the Elector of Bavaria, supported by France; but it was confirmed

firmed to her by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Q. What religion do the Hungarians profess?

A. They profess the Roman Catholic religion; there are a great number of Protestants, who are less restrained in the exercise of their religion than they were formerly; we also find there many of the Greek church.

Q. How is Hungary governed?

A. It is a monarchy; the states have lost that authority which they formerly enjoyed, although they have retained some few privileges,—such as that of giving their consent to the imposition of taxes.

Q. What rivers have they in Hungary?

A. Their principal rivers are the Danube, the Save, the Drave, and the Teisse; the three last fall into the first, which runs from west to east, and discharges itself into the Black Sea.

LESSON XVI.

HUNGARY *continued.*

Q. How is Hungary divided?

A. It is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary, and Slavonia;—the upper in the west, the lower in the east, and Slavonia in the south.

Q. Which was the ancient capital?

A. Buda,

A. Buda, or Offen, on the Danube, in Lower Hungary, where their kings formerly resided.

Q. Which is the modern capital?

A. Presburg, in Upper Hungary, is looked upon as the capital; it is there where their kings are crowned, and where the states hold their assemblies.

Q. What cities are there in Upper Hungary?

A. We there find Temeswar, a fortified city; Comorre, where the grandees of the kingdom meet to hear trials; and Tokay, renowned for its excellent wines.

Q. Which are those of the Lower Hungary?

A. They have Gran, an archbishoprick; Raab, or Javarin, a bishoprick,—and Stuhl-Weissenbourg, where are the sepulchres of their ancient kings?

Q. Which is the capital of Sclavonia?

A. Pofega, a fortified place: we also find a fortress called Essek, which has a bridge over the Drave; and Carlowitz, where was concluded the treaty already spoken of.

3d. Of TRANSYLVANIA.

Q. Where is Transylvania situated?

A. It is situated on the east of Hungary; it has been so called, because it is separated from Hungary by forests, which surround it on all parts.

Q. What is the quality of the soil?

A. It

A. It produces corn and wine; they feed a great quantity of cattle; and in the mountains they have metals and minerals.

Q. How was it governed formerly?

A. This principality was formerly governed by its own sovereigns, which were elective, and bore the title of Vaivodes;—the last of those was Michael Abaffi II.

Q. What of him?

A. That prince, to screen himself from the vexations he experienced from the Turks, put himself under the protection of the house of Austria, and abandoned to the emperor all his titles on Transylvania.

Q. Who does it now belong to?

A. The Turks having, by the treaty of Carlowitz, relinquished all pretensions on that country, it fell to the Empress Queen of Hungary; and after, by descent, to the present reigning Emperor, who keeps a governor there.

Q. What are the people who inhabit Transylvania?

A. It is inhabited by different people; the Sicules, originally from Tartary,—Hungarians, Saxons and Germans.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. They openly profess several religions,—such as the Roman Catholic, the Protestant and the Greek church.

Q. Which is the capital of Transylvania?

A. The

A. The capital of all the principality is **Hermanstadt**, a large city,—the residence of the Austrian governor; besides that, there is **Weissenbourg** and **Clausenbourg**, both fortified cities.

LESSON XVII.

Of GERMANY.

Q. How is Germany situated?

A. Germany, which gives the title of Emperor, is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea and the Ocean; by Poland and Hungary in the east; by Italy and Switzerland on the south,—and by France and the Low Countries on the west.

Q. What is the quality of the country?

A. The air is wholesome and temperate, the soil in general produces every thing,—and even in some places excellent wine: the forests are full of deer and other game,—and the country is populous.

Q. Who conquered that country formerly?

A. The Romans conquered part of it under Augustus; but they regained their liberty a little before the division of the empire.

Q. What

Q. What happened after?

A. In the fifteenth century, a great number of them emigrated from Germany, and fell on the neighbouring countries,—invaded Italy, and drove Augustulus from his throne;—so that there was no emperor in the west for more than three hundred years.

Q. By whom was that dignity re-established?

A. By Charlemagne, king of France; who, after having conquered part of Germany, rendered the remainder tributary, abolished the sovereignty of the Lombards in Italy, and was crowned Emperor at Rome in the year 800.

Q. Over what countries did he reign?

A. He was in possession of France, Germany, most part of Italy, and some provinces of Spain; so that he reigned nearly over all the countries which had been subjected to the emperors of the west.

Q. What became of those states?

A. Those vast possessions were separated, and Germany then began to form a distinct and independent monarchy.

Q. Did his descendants preserve those conquests?

A. They preserved them till the reign of Lewis III.; after whose demise, in 912, the empire began to decline.

Q. What happened then?

A. Several

A. Several German lords, and the governors of the different provinces, undertook to make themselves independent of the emperor; from thence comes the great number of petty princes of Germany.

Q. What other change was there?

A. The empire, which had been hereditary, became elective, and successively passed to several princes of different houses, principally those of Saxony, Franconia and Swabia.

Q. With whom did they differ?

A. Several of the emperors were at variance with the popes, who were successful in weakening considerably the imperial authority in Italy.

Q. What occasioned these differences?

A. They rose on account of the sovereignty over the city of Rome, and the independence of its bishop with regard to the emperor: after many wars the popes obtained one and the other.

Q. Who were the most renowned of those emperors?

A. Those who gained most fame were Otho the Great, Henry IV. and Frederick I.

Q. Did Otho the Great do any thing remarkable?

A. He united Germany to Italy in 964; and from thence comes the title of Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire.

Q. What happened to Henry IV.

A. Henry

A. Henry IV. having differed with the Pope on account of the ecclesiastical investitures, the latter excommunicated and deposed the former in 1122.

Q. What do you observe of Frederick I.?

A. He waged war for several campaigns in Italy, in order to establish the authority of the emperors on a solid basis; but it became successively weaker under his successors, and was reduced to the pitch we see it at this day.

Q. What happened after?

A. After the extinction of the house of Swabia, there was a long interregnum, of which the princes of the empire took advantage to confirm their authority in their respective states, and establish their right of election of the emperors.

Q. To what family did the empire then devolve?

A. In these last centuries the house of Austria has been in possession of it, almost without interruption. It has given sixteen emperors successively.

Q. Who was the first emperor of that family?

A. The first emperor, and chief of that family, was Rodolphus, Count of Hapsbourg, which is the name of a castle in Switzerland; he was elected, in 1273, after the interregnum already spoken of.

Q. What other emperors are remarked?

A. We must remark Charles IV. who fixed the Golden Bull, and the right of electors, in

1356; and Sigismond, under whose reign the councils or general assembly of bishops were held at Constance and Basle, in the years 1414 and 1431.

Q. Who was the most powerful prince of the house of Austria?

A. Charles V. who possessed Spain, Hungary, the Low Countries, and part of Italy, shortly after the new continent had been discovered by the Spaniards.

Q. What is to be remarked of his reign?

A. His reign was a perpetual war; he aspired at making himself absolute in the empire, and to make Europe one single monarchy: he finished by abdicating all his kingdoms in 1555, a few years before his death; and then the house of Austria made two separate branches, that of Germany and that of Spain.

Q. Who was the head of the first?

A. Ferdinand I. brother to Charles V. who was elected emperor in 1556, and retained all the possessions of the house of Austria in Germany.

Q. Who was the head of the second?

A. The chief of the Spanish branch was Philip II. son of Charles V. who inherited Spain, the Low Countries, and Italian Austria.

Q. What do you observe of Ferdinand I.?

A. As we have said before, by his marriage he united Hungary and Bohemia to the house of Austria.

Q. With whom did Ferdinand II. make war?

F. A. He

A. He sustained a bloody war during thirty years against the German Protestants, who were aided by Sweden; it was terminated by the peace of Westphalia, under his son Ferdinand III. in 1648.

Q. What do you observe of Leopold and Joseph?

A. Leopold and his son Joseph, who reigned successively, were remarkable for their long wars against Lewis XIV. of France. It was under the reign of Leopold that the diet first assembled at Ratisbon.

Q. Are there now any remains of that family?

A. No; the family is extinct: the Emperor Charles VI. and brother to Joseph, who died in 1740, was the last of the house of Austria.

Q. Who succeeded to Charles VI.?

A. Charles VII. succeeded him in 1742; he was elector of Bavaria, but died after a short reign, and during the war for the succession of the house of Austria.

Q. Who reigned after that?

A. The empire devolved, in 1745, to Francis I. of Lorraine, Grand-Duke of Tuscany, who had married Maria-Theresa, queen of Hungary, heiress of the house of Austria; it was under his reign that the war for the succession of the house of Austria was ended by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, as said before.

Q. Who is the present emperor?

A. Francis I. died in 1765, and Maria-Theresa, in 1781; Joseph II. their son, who some years before

before had been elected king of the Romans, was elected emperor, and reigned till the year 1790; when his brother, Peter Leopold, then Grand-Duke of Tuscany, was elected emperor, and reigns with all the prerogatives of his predecessors. All the male issue of Ferdinand and Maria-Theresa take the title of Archdukes of Austria, and will form a second branch to that house.

LESSON XVIII.

GERMANY *continued.*

Q. How is Germany governed?

A. Germany is composed of several sovereignties and republicks, united under one chief, who bears the title of Emperor.

Q. In whom does the sovereign authority reside?

A. In the diet, which is the assembly of all the princes and deputies of the states and cities of the empire; but their decisions have not force of law without the concurrence of the emperor.

Q. Where does the diet assemble?

A. They formerly held their assemblies in various cities of Germany; but at present it is perpetually fixed at Ratisbon, in Bavaria: a commissary named by the emperor always presides.

Q. How is the diet composed?

F 2

A. Of

A. Of the three colleges. 1st, That of the electors. 2d. The princes and the counts of the empire, ecclesiastical and secular. 3d. That of the imperial cities.

Q. What religion is professed in Germany?

A. They profess three religions, the Roman Catholic, the Calvinist, and the Lutheran,—every one of which is the established religion in one or the other of the states of the empire.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. They have five great rivers, and two less considerable.

Q. Which are the largest?

A. The five great rivers are, the Danube, which crosses Germany from west to east; the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Weser, which fall into the ocean in the north; and the Oder, which has its discharge in the Baltic Sea.

Q. Which are the lesser?

A. The two lesser are the Maine and the Neckar, both of which fall into the Rhine.

Q. Are there any remarkable forests in Germany?

A. There are two, very remarkable for their vast extent,—the Black Forest in Swabia, and that of Hartz in Lower Saxony.

Q. How is Germany divided?

A. It was formerly composed of ten circles, or great provinces, each of which contained several sovereignties; but at present we must subtract

tract one, as being no longer a part of the states.

Q. Where are those circles situated?

A. There are four in the south, and five in the north.

Q. Which are the four in the south?

A. They are, those of Austria, Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia.

Q. Which are the five in the north?

A. They are those of the Upper and Lower Rhine,—those of Upper and Lower Saxony, and that of Westphalia.

Q. Which was the tenth circle?

A. The tenth circle was, La Franche Comté and the Low Countries, which are now separated from the Germanic body.

Q. How is each circle governed?

A. Each circle has two directors, who summon the states in order to proceed on public business.

Q. To what are these states obliged?

A. When the emperor is at war, they are obliged to furnish their quantum; that is to say, a certain number of troops, or a sum of money, according to the taxation fixed by the general diet of the empire.

LESSON XIX.

Circle of AUSTRIA.

Q. WHAT does the circle of Austria contain?

A. It comprehends all that country which the house of that name possesses in Germany: there are four provinces situate near to each other, and two distant.

Q. Which are those countries?

A. The four first are, the archdukedom of Austria, Stiria, Carinthia and Carniola: the two others are, the Tirol and the Austrian Swabia.

Q. Where is Austria situated?

A. The archdukedom of Austria, and the neighbouring provinces, are situated on the south of Bohemia, and west of Hungary.

Q. How was it that Austria became the property of that family?

A. The Emperor Rodolphus, of Hapsbourg, took possession of Austria as of a vacant fœdal tenure of the empire; in 1282 he gave it to his son Albert, with the title of Archduke, to distinguish him from the other dukes of Germany.

Q. Of what nature is the country?

A. Austria is fertile and populous; there are in it salt-pits, which produce a great revenue; the three neighbouring provinces are hilly and mountainous; they have good pasture lands, and some mines.

Q. How

Q. How is Austria divided?

A. Into upper and lower, according to the course of the Danube, which entirely crosses the country.

Q. Which is the capital of Austria?

A. Vienna, on the Danube, in Lower Austria; it is an archbishoprick, has an university, and is a fortified town; this city is looked upon as the capital of the empire, because it is the ordinary residence of the emperor.

Q. What do you remark of that city?

A. That it sustained two sieges against the Turks, in 1529 and 1683; the latter was raised by the aid of John Sobieski, king of Poland, who defeated the Ottoman army in its intrenchments.

Q. What city in Upper Austria?

A. A trading city, called Lintz.

Q. What cities do you remark in the other provinces?

A. We find Gratz, an university, capital of Stiria; Clagenfurt, capital of Carinthia; and Laubach, a bishoprick, capital of Carniola.

Q. What do you remark of Carniola?

A. There we find the lake of Czirnitz, which being dry several months in the year, alternately furnishes the surrounding inhabitants with fish, corn, hay and game.

Q. What other territories does the house of Austria possess?

A. It is in possession of part of Frioul and Istria, provinces situated on the gulf of Venice, where we also find Trieste, a sea-port, and a city of great trade.

Q. What is the Tirol?

A. The country of Tirol, south of Bavaria, is a mountainous country, abounding in mines of iron and copper; its capital is Inspruck, on the Inn, the residence of the governor.

Q. What cities are near the Tirol?

A. We find the sovereign bishoprick of Trent; the capital, which bears the same name, is renowned for the last general council of the clergy held in 1545: there is also the bishoprick of Brixen.

Q. What does Austrian Swabia comprehend?

A. Austrian Swabia, which makes part of the circle of that name, comprehends chiefly Brisgau, the city of Constance, and the four forest towns.

Q. Where is Brisgau situated?

A. It is situated along the Rhine and near the Black Forest; its principal towns are Fribourg, the capital, and Brisac.

Q. What is the city of Constance?

A. Constance, on the lake of that name, was formerly an imperial city,—but since the emperor Charles V. it belongs to the house of Austria.

Q. What is remarked of that city?

A. That

A. That a council of the clergy was held there in 1415, in which John Hufs and Jerome of Prague were condemned to be burnt.

Q. What do you mean by forest-towns?

A. The forest-towns are four small cities situated near the Black Forest, in the vicinity of Switzerland; in time of war the Swiss have a right to send a garrison there.

Q. Which is the principal city?

A. The most considerable is Rhinfeldt, a strong place, which has a fine bridge on the Rhine.

Q. What are the three others?

A. They are Seckingen, Lauffenbourg and Valdfhut.

LESSON XX.

GERMANY *continued.*

Circles of BAVARIA, SWABIA *and* FRANCONIA.

Q. WHERE is the circle of Bavaria situated?

A. It is on the west of Austria, watered by the Danube; it is a very fruitful country, and well peopled; its produce is chiefly grain; but iron, marble and salt are also found there.

Q. What

Q. What does that circle contain?

A. It comprehends two secular and four ecclesiastical states, with several others of less consequence.

Q. Which are the two secular?

A. They are the states of the elector of Bavaria, and the dutchy of Neubourg, which belongs to the Elector Palatine.

Q. What are the elector of Bavaria's possessions?

A. He possesses the dutchy of Bavaria, in the south,—and the palatinate of Bavaria, in the north.

Q. What changes have occurred with regard to that?

A. The elector of Bavaria dying without issue, was succeeded by the Elector Palatine, who inherited all his states, except a small portion which was ceded to the house of Austria by the treaty of Teschen, in 1779.

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy of Bavaria?

A. Munich is the capital;—it is a large, fine city, the ordinary residence of the electors, who have here a magnificent palace.

Q. What are the other cities?

A. They have Amberg, capital of the palatinate; Ingolstadt, Donawert and Straubing, fortresses on the Danube.

Q. What is found in the dutchy of Neubourg?

A. We

A. We find Neubourg, the capital, on the Danube,—and the little city of Hochstet, near to which the French lost a famous battle, in the year 1704.

Q. Which are the four ecclesiastical states?

A. They are, the archbishoprick of Saltzbourg, in the east; with the sovereign bishopricks of Ratisbon, of Freisingen and Passau, along the Danube.

Q. What do you observe on these states?

A. Each of these states bears the name of its capital: the city of Saltzbourg is large and strong,—its archbishop is one of the richest prelates in Germany; he is the legate of the Holy See in the empire.

Q. What remark do you make on the other cities?

A. That Ratisbon is an imperial city; it is strong and populous;—and that at Passau a treaty of peace was concluded in 1522.

Q. Where is the circle of Swabia situated?

A. It is west of the circle of Bavaria, and is the most fruitful country in Germany.

Q. Which are the principal states that compose it?

A. It contains the dutchy of Wirtemberg, the margravate or marquisate of Baden, the bishopricks of Augsbourg and Constance, and also a great number of imperial cities.

Q. Which

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy of Wirtemberg?

A. The capital is Stutgard, a very fine city, and very populous, the ordinary residence of the dukes; there is also Tubingen, on the Neckar, where there is a famous university.

Q. How do they divide the marquifate of Baden?

A. It is separated into two parts, in consequence of the two branches or sovereignty of that family; one is the marquifate of Baden-Baden, in the south; and the other Baden-Dourlach, in the north; each takes the name of its capital.

Q. Has any thing remarkable occurred of late in those states?

A. Yes; the margrave of Baden-Baden dying without issue in 1772, that of Baden-Dourlach inherited of him, and has thus united the two branches of that family.

Q. Where does the prince reside?

A. He resides at Carlsruhe, a well built city; the margrave of Baden-Baden resided at Rastadt, where a treaty of peace was made in 1714.

Q. Which are the imperial cities of Swabia?

A. The principal imperial cities of that circle are, Augsbourg, in the east,—and Ulm, on the Danube.

Q. What city is Augsbourg?

A. Augsbourg is one of the largest and most trading cities in Germany, situated on the Leck;

it

it is in repute for its gold and silver-smiths; it was there that the Lutherans presented their confession of faith to the Emperor Charles V. in 1530.

Q. What do you observe of the sovereign bishopricks of Germany?

A. When the prelate of an imperial city bears the title of Bishop, that city is only subject to him in matters of religion,—but he is a temporal sovereign in his own territories and its environs; such is the bishoprick of Augsbourg, of which we have just spoken; its bishop resides at Dillengen, on the Danube.

Q. Where is the circle of Franconia situated?

A. It is situated north of that of Swabia; it is a fruitful, well-peopled country, and they breed great numbers of black cattle.

Q. What states are found there?

A. Three bishopricks,—Wurtzburg, in the west; Bamberg, in the middle; and Aichstat, in the south; besides the marquisesates of Cullenbach or Bareith, in the east,—and Anspach, in the south.

Q. To whom do these marquisesates belong?

A. They belong to the princes of the younger branch of the house of Brandenburg, which bears the name of Brandenburg-Bareith; there are a great many manufactories established by the French refugees: the last margrave of Bareith dying without issue, the margrave of Anspach succeeded to his estates.

Q. Which are the principal cities of that circle?

A. Würtz-

A. Wurtzbourg, Bamberg, and Aichstat, capitals of the bishopricks which bear those names; Nuremberg and Bareith, capitals of the marquises of Cullenbach and Smalkalde.

Q. What city is Nuremberg?

A. It is the most considerable imperial city of Franconia; it is famous for its commerce, its toys and maps.

Q. What is preserved in that city?

A. All the ornaments made use of at the Emperor's coronation, and the crown of Charlemagne, which weighs fourteen pounds.

Q. What do you observe of Smalkalde?

A. It was in that city that the Protestants of Germany, in 1531, held a confederation in order to defend themselves against the house of Austria. In this circle the Teutonic Knights, (who were formerly very powerful in Germany), possess lands; their chief, who calls himself Grand Master, usually resides in the castle of Neuhaus, near Mariendal.

Q. What is remarked of that order?

A. That it was founded by Frederick of Swabia, in the time of the crusades, with a view of relieving the German pilgrims, and was established first at Jerusalem; but having been compelled to quit Palestine with all the Christians, the order retired to Germany, conquered Prussia, and lost it, after having been in possession of it 300 years.

Q. In what state is it at present?

A. It

A. It still possesses great landed property in Germany, which is divided into different commanderies; the knights must all be gentlemen, and are taken indiscriminately from both religions,—but the Grand Master must be a Roman Catholic.

LESSON XXI.

GERMANY *continued.*

Circles of the UPPER and LOWER RHINE.

Q. WHERE is the circle of the Upper Rhine situated?

A. It is situated along the river Rhine; it in a manner forms a cross with the Lower Rhine, which almost cuts it from north to south; it is a fruitful country, especially in wine.

Q. Has it many bishopricks?

A. It contains four, those of Worms and Spire, along the Rhine; that of Basle, on the frontiers of Switzerland; and that of Fulda, in the east.

Q. How many secular principalities?

A. Four; the landgravate of Hesse-Cassel; that of Hesse-Darmstadt, in the east; the county of Hanau, on the right of the Rhine; and the dutchy

dutchy of Deux Ponts, on the left of the same river.

Q. What imperial cities in that circle?

A. Four very considerable;—Francfort, Worms, Spire and Wetzlar.

Q. What other cities?

A. Four other imperial cities,—Cassel and Darmstadt, capitals of the two landgravates; Philipsbourg, and also Deux-Ponts, capital of that dutchy.

Q. What do you observe of Francfort?

A. Francfort on the Maine, in the Veteravia, is one of the largest and most trading cities of Germany; there is kept the golden bull, which contains the fundamental laws of the empire.

Q. What of Philipsbourg?

A. It is situated on the Rhine, and in the bishoprick of Spire,—was formerly a strong place, where the emperor held a garrison in time of war; but its fortifications are in a ruinous state, and not likely to be repaired.

Q. What of Wetzlar?

A. It is there where the imperial chamber assembles, which decides all differences that happen between the princes of the empire.

Q. What is the bishoprick of Basle?

A. That makes part of the Helvetic states;—we shall speak of it in the article of Switzerland.

Q. What is the bishoprick of Fulda?

A. It

A. It was only a rich abbey, but has been raised to a bishoprick; the capital is Fulda, from the river on which it stands.

Q. What is the situation of the circle of the Lower Rhine?

A. It is situated west and south of that of the Upper Rhine; it is a fruitful soil, and abounds with corn and wine.

Q. What states in that circle?

A. Those of four electors; the archbishops of Mentz, Triers and Cologne; and those of the Count Palatine.

Q. What cities in the electorate of Mentz?

A. Mentz, the capital, is an archbishoprick—a large and trading city: it has also Aschaffembourg on the east, where the elector resides.

Q. What cities in the electorate of Triers?

A. We find Triers, the capital, on the Moselle, the most ancient city in Germany; and Coblentz, a fortified town, on the confluence of the Rhine and Moselle, where the elector holds his court.

Q. What cities in the electorate of Cologne?

A. Cologne, the capital, which is dependent on the circle of Westphalia; and Bonn, a strong place on the Rhine, the residence of the elector.

Q. What do you remark of Mentz?

A. It was formerly an imperial city, but it is now subject to its bishop. Printing, and gunpowder were invented there in the fifteenth century.

The archbishop of Mentz is the first of the electors; he presides at the elections, and has the prerogative of crowning the emperor.

Q. What is Cologne?

A. Cologne stands on the Rhine, is an ancient, large and trading city; it is entirely independent of its archbishop: there are in it a great number of churches and convents.

Q. Which is the capital of the palatinate?

A. Mannheim, a strong city, regularly built on confluence of the Rhine and Neckar, the usual residence of the elector. Besides that, there is Heidelberg, the ancient capital, on the Neckar: this and several other neighbouring cities were ruined by the French in the last century. They here shew a tun, very remarkable for its capacity.

LESSON XXII.

GERMANY *continued.*

Circle of UPPER SAXONY.

Q. Where is the circle of Upper Saxony?

A. That circle, one of the largest in Germany, lies north of Franconia, and extends as far as the coasts of the Baltic.

* Q. What

Q. What states does it contain?

A. The chief states are Saxony, the marquissate of Brandenburg, and the duchy of Pomerania. Saxony has a fertile soil,—is very populous,—abounds in corn and pasture, but produces little wine; has a great trade, and some mines of silver.

Q. How is it divided?

A. Into three parts; the duchy of Saxony, in the north; the marquissate of Misnia, in the south; and Thuringia, in the west.

Q. To whom does this country belong?

A. Saxony proper and Misnia belong to the Elector of Saxony; Thuringia is divided among several of the younger princes of the house of Saxony, &c.

Q. Which is the capital of Saxony?

A. Wittemberg; it is an university. It was there that Luther, one of its professors, first began to preach the reformation.

Q. Which is the capital of Misnia?

A. Dresden on the Elbe, one of the finest and most populous cities in Germany, and the residence of the electors, who have there a magnificent palace, stored with a vast number of precious things.

Q. Are there any other cities in Misnia?

A. They have Leipzig, an university, on the Pleiss, a trading city famous for its fairs, Meissen, on the Elbe, where they manufacture the Saxon

china; and Koenigsten, an impregnable fortress on the summit of a rock. In the Harburg, or mountainous country, they have Fridberg, the capital, near which are the silver mines.

Q. Which is the capital of Thuringia?

A. Erfurt, a large city, but not populous; it belongs to the elector of Mentz, with all its territories: they shew an extraordinary large bell: they have also two universities. Hall, towards the north, belongs to the king of Prussia; and Jena, in the east: they have also Gotha, where resides the duke of that name, of the house of Saxony. We also remark in the north of Saxony, the principality of Anhalt, the capital of which is Dessau, on the confluence of the Elbe; and Mulda, the residence of the princes of that name.

Q. Where is the marquisate of Brandenburg situated?

A. It is situated north of Saxony: a sandy soil, of small produce. A great number of French refugees have established themselves there since the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

Q. To whom does that state belong?

A. To the elector of Brandenburg, now king of Prussia, and one of the most powerful princes of Germany. The capital is Berlin, on the Spree, a large, well-built city, and the residence of the sovereign. Near that city the king has several
pleasure

pleasure houses, the chief of which are Sans-Souci, and Charlottenbourg.

Q. What other principal cities are there?

A. Frankfort on the Oder, an university; Custrin, a fortified town in the east; Brandenburg, whose name the whole country bears, in the west; and Potzdam, a city and castle, on the Havel. Potzdam stands on an island formed by the river Havel, and is become considerable since the late king made it his usual residence.

Q. Where is Pomerania situated?

A. The dutchy of that name had formerly its peculiar sovereigns; it is situated north of Brandenburg, and along the coasts of the Baltic. The Oder divides it in two parts, east and west. All the eastern, and part of the western division, belongs to the king of Prussia; the remainder in the north is possessed by Sweden.

Q. Which is the capital of Prussian Pomerania?

A. Stettin, on the left shore of the Oder, a strong and trading city; the other cities are Stargard, in the east, the former capital; and Colberg, a fortress and sea-port, famous for the long siege it sustained in 1759.

Q. What cities in Swedish Pomerania?

A. Stralsund, a strong city and sea-port: near the coast is the island of Rugen, which belongs also to Sweden.

LESSON XXIII.

GERMANY *continued.*

Circles of LOWER SAXONY *and* WESTPHALIA.

Q. Where is Lower Saxony situated?

A. That circle is situated north of the Upper, and west of Pomerania; the air is cold; the soil produces corn, but no wine.

Q. What does that circle comprehend?

A. It contains the states of the house of Brunswick, the dutchy of Magdebourg, with the principality of Halberstadt, towards the south; the bishoprick of Hildersheim, in the middle; and the dutchies of Holstein and Mecklenbourg, in the north.

Q. How is the house of Brunswick divided?

A. In two branches, the ducal and electoral; the chief of the latter is the king of England, as elector of Hanover.

Q. What does the ducal branch possess?

A. The dutchy of Brunswick, in the west, the capital of which is Brunswick; and Wolfenbuttle, a large fortified city.

Q. What belongs to the king of England?

A. He is sovereign of the dutchy of Hanover, in the west; and those of Lunebourg, Bremen
and

and Lawenbourg, in the north: in the first there is Hanover, the capital, and Gottingen, where there is a famous university.

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy of Bremen?

A. The chief city is Bremen, on the Weser, an imperial city, and a Hanse-town of great trade; and Stade, a sea-port, on the Elbe.

Q. What is meant by a Hanse-town?

A. That is a name given to some cities in Germany which were associated for trade: there are at present none but in this circle.

Q. What is remarked of the other dutchies?

A. In those of Lunebourg and Lawenbourg, the capitals bear the same names: the latter stands on the Elbe; and in the former is the city of Zell.

Q. What is observed of Magdebourg and Halberstadt?

A. That their capitals bear the same names, and belong to the king of Prussia. The city of Magdebourg is a large trading city, fortified by a good citadel. Halberstadt was only a bishoprick, but was made a secular principality at the peace of Westphalia, in 1648: there are several such in Germany.

Q. Which is the capital of Mecklenbourg?

A. Schwerin, on the lake of that name, where the duke resides; there are also Wismar and Rostock, belonging to Sweden, both sea-ports.

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy of Holstein?

A. Kiel is the capital; there resided the duke of Holstein before he was raised to the throne of Russia, by the name of Peter III. as before said.

Q. What does the king of Denmark possess in that dutchy?

A. He has that part of Holstein where we find Gluckstadt, the capital, and Altena, both on the Elbe: the latter is a city of great trade.

Q. What changes have taken place in that respect?

A. By a late treaty in 1773, the king of Denmark has been invested with all which the Grand-Duke of Russia possessed in Holstein, and in exchange has given up to him the counties of Oldenbourg and Delmenhurst, in Westphalia.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. Hambourg on the Elbe, and Lubeck, a bishoprick, in the east, on the Trave, both imperial cities.

Q. What do you remark of Hambourg and Lubeck?

A. Hambourg is the largest, richest, and most trading city in Germany. Ships of burthen come to their doors from the ocean, though more than thirty leagues distant. Lubeck is the only bishoprick in Germany where the bishop is always a Protestant prince: it is a city of trade, and is rich; the bishop resides at Eutin.

Q. Where

Q. Where is the circle of Westphalia situated?

A. East of the Lower Saxony; the southern part produces corn, and the northern abounds in pasture. It is from thence we draw those hams, known by the name of Westphalia hams; it contains four bishopricks; that of Liege in the west,—those of Munster, Paderborn and Osnaburgh towards the middle: they all bear the names of their capitals.

Q. How many secular principalities?

A. Several; the principal of which are the dukedoms of Berg, Juliers and Cleves; the counties of Marck and Oldenbourg; and the principality of Ostfrize.

Q. What is the bishoprick of Liege?

A. It is situated along the Meuse, and inclosed by the Low Countries. Liege, the capital, is a large and populous city;—there is also the borough of Spa, famous for its mineral waters; besides Huy and Dinant on the Meuse.

Q. What do you remark of the city of Munster?

A. That it is a large and fortified city, famous for the general treaty of peace concluded withal Europe, in 1648.

Q. What of Osnaburgh?

A. It is a considerable city: its bishop is alternately a Catholic and a Protestant; the latter is always of the House of Brunswick. The present bishop is the King of England's second son.

Q. To

Q. To whom belong Berg and Juliers?

A. They are situated along the Rhine, and belong to the Elector Palatine. Their capitals are Juliers and Dusseldorp.

Q. To whom belong Cleves and la Marck?

A. To the King of Prussia: we find Cleves the capital, and also Wesel, on the confluence of the Rhine and Lippe: the capital of the county of Marck, is Ham, on the Lippe, a large and well-built city.

Q. Who does Oldenbourg belong to?

A. It did belong to the King of Denmark; but, as we said before, was ceded to the Grand Duke of Russia: the capital is Oldenbourg.

Q. Who has the principality of Ostfrize?

A. It was for a long time governed by its own sovereigns; but for some years past it has been in the possession of the King of Prussia. Embden, a strong sea-port town, is the capital.

Q. What imperial cities are there in this circle?

A. The most important are Aix-la-Chapelle, and Cologne, of which we have already spoken.

Q. What is observed of Aix-la-Chapelle?

A. It is situated in the dutchy of Juliers; there resided Charlemagne; formerly the emperors were crowned there. It is renowned for its mineral waters, and for the peace concluded in 1748.

LESSON XXIV.

Of SAVOY.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Savoy?

A. The dukedom of that name is situate between France, which bounds it west and south, and Switzerland, which bounds it also north and east.

Q. What is its produce?

A. The country is of small extent, and produces little. The soil is dry, stony, and unequal. In some places it produces corn, wine, and chestnuts.

Q. To whom does this dutchy belong?

A. To the house of Savoy, a very ancient family; the founder of which was Berold, whose son Humbert, surnamed the White-hands, took the title of duke in 1000. The dukedom was confirmed by the Emperor Sigismund, who, in 1416, gave also the title of vicars of the empire in Italy to the new dukes.

Q. Who was the most renowned of those dukes?

A. Many have been famous in history: We remark principally Amadeus VIII. and Victor Amadeus.

Q. What

Q. What do you remark of Amadeus VIII.?

A. He was the first duke of Savoy. He abdicated the government; entered into holy orders, and was afterwards Pope, in 1434, by the name of Felix V.

Q. What of Victor Amadeus?

A. He was an able politician, and considerably enlarged his dominions during the war at the beginning of this century. He was acknowledged King of Sardinia in 1730, and also abdicated the crown a short time before his demise.

Q. How did he enlarge his dominions?

A. His own interest made him take advantage of the situation of Piedmont, the sovereign of which is master of the passages which communicate from France to Italy.

Q. What are the present possessions of the duke of Savoy?

A. Besides his former dominions, he has the island of Sardinia, which is a kingdom. Piedmont, Montferrat, and part of the Milanese, as a fœdal tenure of the empire.

Q. Who succeeded Victor Amadeus?

A. Charles Emanuel, his son, who reigned with great glory.

Q. What name bears the present king?

A. Victor Amadeus Maria, son of Charles Emanuel; he has reigned since the year 1773.

Q. How is Savoy governed?

A. It

A. It is governed monarchically. It is hereditary, but only to the male line.

Q. Which is the established religion?

A. The Roman Catholic. There are Protestants in the vallies of Piedmont. Persecution obliged many of them to abandon their country, and fix themselves in foreign countries.

Q. What rivers have they in Savoy?

A. None considerable but the Isere, which rises there, and falls into the Rhone.

Q. How is Savoy divided?

A. Into five small provinces; Savoy proper, the Tarentese and the Maurienne in the south; the Genevese, the Chablais, and the Faucigny in the north. The capital of all Savoy is Chambery, in Savoy proper; it has a parliament: The city is pretty large, and has a fine castle.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. Montmelian, near Chambery, a strong city, built on a rock; the archbishoprick of Moutiers, in the Tarentese; the bishoprick of St. John, in the Maurienne, and Annecy.

Q. What do you observe of Annecy?

A. It is a small city in the Genevese, and the place where resides the Bishop of Geneva, since that city has embraced the reformation.

LESSON XXV.

Of SWITZERLAND.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Switzerland?

A. It is situated between Germany, which bounds it east and north, France on the west, and Italy on the south.

Q. What is its produce?

A. In several places it produces corn and wine; it abounds in excellent pastures, and is full of lakes and mountains; but the industry of its inhabitants compensates for what nature has refused them; it is a populous country, and the air is pure.

Q. How were they named formerly?

A. Helvetians. They are a people well known in history by that name, in the time of Julius Cæsar. Discontented with their own country, and seeking a more fruitful soil, they burnt all their villages, abandoned their native land, and endeavoured to penetrate into Gaul. Julius Cæsar, who commanded there for the Romans, opposed their passage, and, having routed them in several skirmishes, obliged the remainder to return to Helvetia. They were after that subjected by the Romans, and under their dominion, till various people of Germany and the north, invaded many provinces of the empire.

Q. Who

Q. Who subdued them after that?

A. The Germans, the Burgundians, and the Franks, in 420; who, having made themselves masters of part of Gaul, established dukes and counts to govern Helvetia.

Q. How was Switzerland divided in the 9th century?

A. In the 9th century, and in the time of Charlemagne, it was divided into the northern and southern provinces; the former made part of the German empire, and the latter of the Franks. About the latter end of that century, Rodolphus de Stratlingue laid the foundation of the kingdom of Burgundy Transjurane, which his descendants possessed till the 11th century; it comprehended the southern Helvetia. In 1032 that kingdom fell to Conrad II. emperor of Germany, who thus became sovereign of all Helvetia; and who, as well as his successors, caused it to be governed by a rector, in the name of the empire. In the 13th century it was divided into several provinces and private jurisdictions, which formed themselves at the decline of the empire.

Q. What princes had they?

A. They had ecclesiastical princes; the most powerful were the bishops of Lausanne and Basle, and the abbé of St. Gall.

Q. What Counts?

A. Several

A. Several; such as those of Kybourg, Hapsbourg, Toggenbourg, and Savoy; all which had many vassals.

Q. What imperial cities were there?

A. The most considerable were Zurich, Berne, Schaffhausen, and Basle. There were also some free people who inhabited the county of Schwitz, Uri, and Underwald, who, in the foregoing centuries, had obtained great privileges from the emperor, had held confederations among themselves, and were governed by their own laws.

Q. What of them?

A. During the interregnum of Conrad II. in 1273, they put themselves under the protection of Rodolphus, count of Hapsbourg, who was afterwards chosen emperor; but when Rodolphus died, and his son Albert was chosen emperor, they requested him to confirm their privileges, and to give them governors to administer justice in the name of the empire; he rejected their petition, and named Gessler and Landenberg, two gentlemen of a harsh and cruel disposition, to govern them; who immediately took possession of all the castles, and garrisoned them.

Q. What reasons had the emperor for this refusal?

A. He knew these people to be jealous of their liberty, and thought, by opposing their desire, to provoke them to a revolt, which would give him an opportunity of subduing them,

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them, and by that means make himself absolute master of all Helvetia. In consequence of which the governors treated them in the most tyrannical manner; Gessler went so far as to exact, that they should render the same honours to his hat as to his person; his intent for so doing was, to know those who were most refractory, in order to make himself master of them.

Q. Did any one refuse to obey?

A. Yes; William Tell, originally of the canton of Uri, an excellent marksman with the cross-bow, and an ever-memorable citizen, resolutely refused to obey that ridiculous order; in consequence of which the governor condemned him to shoot at, and dislodge from thence, an apple placed on the head of his own son; which he executed with the greatest success, in the year 1307; after which, the governor having observed that he had another arrow, asked him what use he had proposed making of it. Tell frankly and courageously answered, that if he had had the misfortune of wounding his son with the first, he would have killed him, the governor, with the second.

Q. How was William Tell treated afterwards by the governor?

A. He loaded him with irons, and embarked with him on the lake Lucerne, with intent to conduct him to a castle where he resided, and there to keep him close confined; but a storm

H happening

happening to arise in their passage, Tell was freed from his irons, and put to the helm, as the man most capable of saving the governor from a wreck; Tell conducted the vessel near a rock, jumped upon it, and got clear off: he afterwards concealed himself in the low grounds, where he knew that the governor was to pass, and killed him.

LESSON XXVI.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

Q. WHAT became of William Tell?

A. He immediately informed three of the principal inhabitants of what had befallen him; he knew their dispositions, and had often conferred with them on the means of restoring liberty to their oppressed country. These men were Verner Stauffacher, Walter Furst, and Arnold de Melchtal, all capital men; it is to these generous citizens that Switzerland owes the return of liberty. They first made themselves masters, by stratagem, of two castles occupied by the governors. Landenberg saved himself

himself by flight, and that made them also masters of all the other castles, which they demolished. Their courage and moderation were generally admired;—no violence was offered to any one;—they gave liberty to the soldiers, and all the servants of the governors, whom they had taken prisoners; and contented themselves with sentencing them to banishment. The emperor Albert, informed of this revolution, raised a powerful army, in 1308, and was preparing to march in person against them, when he was assassinated near Konigsfelden, by the duke of Swabia, his nephew.

Q. What happened afterwards?

A. Frederick of Austria was created emperor; and Leopold, son of Albert, assembled an army of 20,000 men, and marched against the three confederate cantons, who united all their forces; and, though they were but 1500, gained a compleat victory over the Austrians, near Morgarten, in 1315. After this victory, they made between themselves a new alliance, which became the foundation of the Helvetic confederation. They then took the name of Switzers, from the most capital of the three confederate cantons. In the succeeding years, from 1315 to 1352, the cities of Lucerne, Zurich, and Bern, and the countries of Zug and Glaris, entered into the confederation. These eight cantons are called the ancient, because that, for more than

a whole century, they alone composed the Helvetic states.

Q. Did the Austrians make any further attempts against them?

A. Yes; the princes of the house of Austria took up arms again, in 1534, in order to reduce Zug and Glaris once more under their obedience; but, notwithstanding all their efforts, the latter preserved the liberty they had acquired by their union. The Switzers were again attacked, in 1375, by a numerous army, most part of which were English, and commanded by Engerrard de Courcy. His intention was to recover some estates which the Switzers had gained from the Austrians, and maintain the prerogatives of his mother, who was of that family. Engerrard's army committed many depredations in Switzerland; but several corps of his troops having been separately defeated, the rest were obliged to retire. In 1384 the duke of Austria began again to vex the Lucernois, and war was renewed: Leopold, nephew to the Leopold already spoken of, raised an army of 4000 men, and marched against the Switzers: A battle was fought near the city of Sempach, in 1386, when 1300 Switzers entirely routed the Austrian army; the duke Leopold, and a great part of his nobility were killed. A Swiss knight, named Arnold de Winckelried, confirmed the victory, by exposing himself to unavoidable death.

death. Notwithstanding so many defeats, the Austrians, in 1388, entered again with an army into the country of Glaris; but the inhabitants, though much inferior in numbers, beat them again near Nafels; after which, a truce of twenty years was agreed upon, during which time the Switzers availed themselves of every opportunity to consolidate their union, and to make those military dispositions which are so much admired to this day.

Q. In what other wars were they engaged?

A. In that of the council of Constance, which broke out in 1415, which gave the Switzers an opportunity of extending their power, at the expence of the house of Austria: for Frederick III. having been proscribed by the empire, the Switzers, by order of Sigismund, took possession of several estates which that house possessed in their dominions; and the Switzers agreed between themselves, that the greatest part of their conquests should be held in common, as they are to this day, by the eight ancient cantons; the remainder to be held by those who had made conquests of them.

LESSON XXVII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

Q. HAVE the Switzers had any civil wars?

A. Yes; in the fifteenth century, when they were quiet with their neighbours, Switzerland became the theatre of a long and bloody civil war. The last count of Toggenbourg dying without issue, the canton of Zurich, on one part, and that of Schwitz on the other, stated their different pretensions to that country, and took up arms accordingly. Sigismund, duke of Austria, who sought revenge on the Switzers, declared himself for Zurich, whilst the other five cantons joined those of Schwitz and Glaris. After several battles, to the advantage of the allies, Sigismund called in a body of French soldiers, known by the name of Armagnacs, commanded by the dauphin, afterwards Lewis XI. This corps, composed of 50,000 men, advanced as far as the city of Basil, the inhabitants of which asked succour of the Switzers, who sent them immediately 1600 men; these, having beat the advanced guard, were bold enough to attack the main body of the army; they lost 400 men, and retreated into the hospital of St. James; where, during

during ten hours, they resisted the whole efforts of the enemy. These brave men, after the most astonishing actions of bravery, perished sword in hand, except twelve who returned home, and were looked upon as cowards. The dauphin, astonished at the Swiss valour, did not dare penetrate into their country, and retired. The Zurichois, weakened by their repeated losses, consented to an agreement, and peace was once more restored to Switzerland in 1450.

Q. What is further remarked?

A. The Swiss having at that time gained great reputation for their military exploits, were much regarded by other nations, who engaged them in their wars. Their first alliance was with France, in the reign of Charles VII. in 1453; and their first treaty was thirteen years after with the duke of Milan, of the house of Sforza. They had after that a formidable enemy to encounter, which was Charles the Bold, last duke of Burgundy, who carried war into their country towards the end of the fifteenth century; this war was fomented by the ambition of Charles, the hatred of Sigismund, and the politics of Louis XI. who endeavoured to create enemies to the duke. Sigismund gave the guard of all the cities he possessed in the vicinity of the cantons, to the duke of Burgundy; and the duke placed officers there, who in various ways used the Swiss ill. Louis XI. with a view

to weaken the duke's party, prevailed upon Sigismund to reconcile himself with the Swiss; and to sign in 1474, an hereditary union, by which he gave up all his conquests to the house of Austria.

Q. How did the Swiss conduct themselves on that occasion?

A. They sent an ambassador to the duke of Burgundy, to complain of the vexations occasioned by his officers; but having received no satisfaction, they took up arms, and seized some of his estates. The duke marched with a formidable army, and recovered the city of Grandson, which the Swiss had taken; but they soon rallied their forces again, and in 1476 engaged him in battle, and gained a memorable victory near Grandson. Charles, exasperated at this loss, raised a fresh army, and in the same year besieged the city of Morat; the Swiss marched to the succour of the besieged,—attacked the duke, and totally defeated him;—he lost 26,000 men, and all his baggage; and even ran great risk of his life. The bones of the Burgundians were all gathered together into a mass, and are seen at this day in a bone-house near Morat. The duke, disgusted at his unsuccessful endeavours against the Swiss, turned his arms against their ally, René, duke of Lorraine, and was in a short time after killed in a battle near Nancy.

Q. What was the event?

A. As

A. As the house of Savoy had declared for the duke of Burgundy, the Swiss took possession of the Pays de Vaud, which belonged to that house; but they restored it at the peace concluded the same year: they only retained some pieces of land which belonged to count Romont, of that family, and which were yielded to the cantons of Berne and Fribourg. Some years after, the emperor Maximilian having established an imperial chamber, wanted to subject the Swiss to its decrees, and to those of the diet, as if they had still been under the government of the empire. After many fruitless remonstrances, they took up arms to support their independence. They had, at the instigation of the emperor, several cities and princes of the empire against them, who formed the faction of Swabia;—and after many battles, most part of which were gained by the Swiss, a peace was signed at Basil, in the year 1499. This was the last war they supported in defence of their liberty.

LESSON XXVIII.

Conclusion of the HISTORY of SWITZERLAND.

Q. HAD the Swiss any share in the wars of Italy?

A. The Swiss, urged by the emperor Maximilian on one hand, and by Louis XII. on the other, took great part in those wars, and furnished large bodies of troops.

Q. What created those wars?

A. The king of France, who had some pretensions on the duchy of Milan, endeavouring by force of arms to support that claim, several princes of Italy entered into a confederation to oppose his designs. The Swiss, by reason of their alliance with Maximilian Sforza, put him in possession of his capital in 1513, and gained over the French the battle of Novarre.—But Francis I. successor to Louis XII. entering the Milanese with a numerous army, the Swiss, in 1515, lost the famous battle of Marignan, after exhibiting the greatest marks of heroism. Francis I. admiring the valour of the Swiss, made them the most advantageous proposals, and stipulated with them that treaty called the *Perpetual Peace*, which has been the foundation of all the treaties made since between France and the Cantons.

tons. This famous alliance was solemnly renewed and confirmed in 1771. That war was the last in which the Swiss were interested. Since that period they have held a constant neutrality, and confined themselves to the defence of their own territories, and furnishing troops to those powers with whom they are allied.

Q. What happened at the time of the reformation?

A. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, some of the cantons having embraced the reformation, the difference of opinion caused a division, which created another civil war. The canton of Zurich on one part, and the five small cantons on the other, having taken up arms in 1531, a battle was fought near Cappel, in which the Zurichois were defeated; but soon after, peace was concluded.

Q. How did they act in the sixteenth century?

A. In all the wars of that century they held the strictest neutrality, and only armed to keep the contending powers out of their country. At the general peace, they sent an ambassador to Munster, and were comprised in the general peace of Europe in 1648, and acknowledged for a free and independent people by all the other powers. The house of Austria had already acknowledged their independence by the preceding treaties, and particularly by the hereditary union, of which we have spoken.

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Q. Was

Q. Was there not an insurrection in Switzerland about that time?

A. Yes; about the middle of that century some peasants of the cantons of Berne, Lucerne, Soleure, and Basle, revolted, and took up arms under the command of one of themselves, named Leuwenberg. The Bernois having assembled their faithful subjects, and received a strong succour from Zurich, marched against the rebels, who had laid down their arms without resistance. Their chiefs were punished in 1653.

Q. Was there not another civil war?

A. Two years after, another civil war was kindled, on account of some Protestants of Schwitz, who had retired into the canton of Zurich, to whom their compatriots had refused the privilege of disposing of their property. This war was further fomented by the pope's nuncio, and the Spanish ambassador, who endeavoured by their intrigues to establish solely the Roman Catholic religion in Helvetia. In 1658, the Protestants lost the battle of Vilmergue; the Zurichois were forced to raise the siege of Rapperswyl; but by the interference of the neutral cantons, peace was re-established the same year. The last civil war they experienced happened in the beginning of the present century, and was excited by the abbé of St. Gall, and the pope's nuncio, and soon degenerated into a religious war. The abbé had long molested his reformed

formed subjects of Toggenbourg in the exercise of their religion, and in the enjoyment of their privileges :—these people, exasperated, claimed the protection of the cantons of Zurich and Berne, their allies, who attempted, but in vain, to reconcile them without bloodshed. The abbé first sent troops into Toggenbourg,—the cantons of Zurich and Berne armed for the defence of their allies,—and those of Lucerne, Uri, Schwitz, Underwald and Zug, declared for the abbé. The troops of the two former cantons made themselves masters of several provinces, which till then they had held jointly with the other cantons ; and in 1712 gained a battle over the Catholics near Vilmergue. This war was happily brought to an end by the intervention of the cantons who had remained neuter ; and peace was re-established in 1712. It was stipulated by that treaty, that the Protestants of Toggenbourg should enjoy their former privileges ; and that the cantons of Zurich and Berne should remain sovereigns over that part of the country they had conquered from the Catholics.

LESSON XXIX.

General Description of SWITZERLAND.

Q. WHAT rivers and lakes are there in Switzerland?

A. As it is an elevated country, several rivers rise in it; the largest are the Rhine, the Rhone, the Aar, which falls into the Rhine, and the Reufs, which enters the Aar. Its principal lakes are those of Constance, Geneva, Lucerne, Zurich, and Neufchatel. The Rhine takes its rise in the country of the Grisons,—crosses the lake of Constance,—forms a cataract near Schaffhausen, and directs its course towards the north. The Rhone issues from the mountain la Fourche, in the Valais,—runs from east to west,—crosses the lake of Geneva,—loses itself under that city,—appears again at Seyfel, and continues its course to the Mediterranean.

Q. What is found in the mountains?

A. They meet with mines of iron and lead,—crystals, medicinal herbs, much esteemed, and divers natural curiosities, such as petrefactions, mineral waters, and hot-baths: several learned men, such as Messrs. Scheuchzer, Lang, Bourguet and Bertrand, have successively formed collections of them.

Q. How

Q. How is Switzerland composed?

A. It is composed of several republicks, independent of each other, but united for their common interest; the whole of which forms the Helvetic corps: it is generally divided into three parts, viz. Switzerland proper,—the countries subject to them,—and their allies. Switzerland proper contains thirteen sovereign republics, which are called Cantons, and which are generally divided into seven large and six small ones; that division is much less in consequence of the extent of the republicks, than for the celebrity of their capitals. The seven large cantons are Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Fribourg, Soleure, Schaffhausen, and Basil: the six small ones are Uri, Schwitz, Unterwald, Zug, Glaris and Appenzel.

Q. How are they governed?

A. In the first, the government is aristocratic, more or less mixed with democracy; but in the small cantons it is purely democratic, or popular. It is to be observed, that in the large cantons the sovereignty belongs solely to the capital city,—the rest of the country is subject to its decrees; but with the enjoyment of certain privileges. The deputies of all the republicks formerly assembled at Baden, to hold their general diet; but since the last civil war in 1712, they meet at Frawenfeld. In this assembly they treat of all affairs interesting the whole Helvetic states;

such

such as peace, war, alliances, and the business of the provinces governed in common; it is there also that audience is given to foreign ambassadors. The diet assembles generally once every year; but there are extraordinary convocations when necessity requires. The deputies of the canton of Zurich preside; but they have no superiority over the others. Besides the general diet, there is one held at Arau, particularly for the Protestant cantons;—these are usually to treat of religious affairs: that of the Catholic cantons assembles at Lucerne.

Q. What is the foundation of the Helvetic union?

A. It is founded on the treaty of confederation made in the fourteenth century, between the cantons of Schwitz, Uri and Underwald, to which the other cantons have acceded. Some cities of Switzerland have particular confederations, called the Treaty of the United Burgeses: the end of these treaties is to give reciprocal succour and protection. They also prescribe the means of deciding amicably all differences which may arise between the cities thus allied.

Q. What religion do the Swiss profess?

A. There are some cantons where the established religion is the Protestant, and others Catholic: there are also some where both religions are professed, and often in the same chapel. The Zurichois were the first who embraced the reformation.

reformation from Zuinglius, chaplain to the army of that canton, who was killed at the battle of Cappel, in 1531. The most renowned reformers after him were Calvin, Oecolampade, Farel, and Viret. Four of the large cantons are Protestants, viz. Zurich, Berne, Schaffhausen and Basle;—Lucerne, Fribourg and Soleure are Catholics; as are also four of the small ones, viz. Uri, Schwitz, Underwald and Zug; the mixed cantons are Glaris and Appenzel.—In the description which we mean to give of each canton, we shall follow the same order in which the deputies hold their seats at the general diet.

LESSON XXX.

Of SWITZERLAND PROPER.

1st. Of the CANTON of ZURICH.

Q. WHERE is Zurich situated?

A. In the eastern part of Switzerland; it has Schaffhausen in the north, Thurgau in the east, Schwitz in the south, Zug and the free provinces, in the west. Zurich, its capital, is situated on the river Limmat, at the extremity of the lake of Zurich: it is a large, rich, popu-
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lous

lous and trading city: it was made an imperial city by Frederick II. in 1351: its antiquity gives it the first rank. The most remarkable things are the cathedral, which has two steeples covered with copper,—its library, its museum, the town-house and arsenal.

Q. How is that city governed?

A. By a great and little council; the first is sovereign,—its chief is a burgo-master, whose place is for life; the members are taken from the thirteen tribes which compose the burgeses; the grand council is composed of two hundred and twelve members; the little council has fifty, and forms the senate. This is divided into two parts, each of which, with its burgo-master, governs six months. Zurich is one of the most extensive cantons in all Switzerland,—has thirty-two governments, eighteen interior, and as many exterior: the first is governed by the members of the little council, who reside in the capital; and the other governors, or bailiffs, reside in their departments.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. Two small ones; Winterthur, an ancient city, and Stein, on that part of the Rhine which issues from the lake of Constance: they are under the protection of Zurich, and governed by their own laws. The other remarkable places are, Kibourg, residence of the ancient counts; Laufen, near the cataract of the Rhine; Regensberg, where

where there is a fortified city ; and Cappel, where was fought the battle already spoken of.

2d. Of the CANTON of BERNE.

Q. What is the Canton of Berne ?

A. It is the most extensive of all ;—it takes up almost one-third of Switzerland, and extends from the Rhine in the east, to the city of Geneva in the west. The capital is Berne, a large and well-built city ; its streets are spacious,—every house has a portico, or piazza, which forms a covered way :—It was founded by Berthold V. last duke of Zeringue, in 1191, who gave it many privileges, to render it populous ; and it obtained many more from the emperor Frederic II. This city formed alliances with its neighbours, sustained war against the counts of Kibourg, gained some territories, bought others, and entered into the Helvetic confederation in 1353.

Q. How is it governed ?

A. By a sovereign council, composed of 299 members, and a senate of 27, with the two chiefs of the republic, called Avoyers. Their places are for life, but they govern alternately one year. Besides these, in the number of senators there are two treasurers, and four bannereis : each of these govern a jurisdiction out of the capital. This city has a fine cathedral, two arsenals, and two hospitals.

Q. How is the canton of Berne divided?

A. Into what they call the German country, and the Pays de Vaud. The German country comprehends thirty-five bailiwics; besides the four jurisdictions already mentioned. The most remarkable places are, Arberg, in an island formed by the river Aar, the fortress of Arbourg on a rock, and Konigsfelden, which was formerly a convent, built in memory of the emperor Albert, who was interred there, as was also Leopold of Austria, who was killed at the battle of Sempach. There are also four other small cities, Zoffingue, Arau, Bruck, and Lentzbourg; they are governed by their own magistrates. The thirty-five bailiwics above-mentioned, are divided into three districts, Argeu, Emmenthal, and Oberland; in this last, the people live chiefly on milk; they eat but little bread; are a stout, hardy set of men, and long-lived.—The country abounds in pasture. There are many natural curiosities, such as their ice-pit, perpetually full of ice; a periodical fountain; some rock crystal; and mines of lead and iron.

LESSON

LESSON XXXI.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*3d. *Of the PAYS DE VAUD.*

Q. To whom did the Pays de Vaud belong?

A. It was formerly divided between the duke of Savoy, the bishop of Lausanne, and the cantons of Berne and Fribourg, who possessed a part of it since the war of Burgundy. The duke of Savoy continually annoyed the Genevese, who had embraced the reformation; the canton of Berne, to defend their ally, took up arms in 1536. They conquered the Pays de Vaud and part of Savoy almost without resistance. The bishop of Lausanne having taken the duke's part, the Bernois seized all his property;—his name was Bernard de Montfaucon, and was the last bishop who resided at Lausanne. The war ended by a treaty of peace, which stipulated that the Bernois should give up what they had gained in Savoy, and that the duke should leave them the Pays de Vaud,—which is a fruitful country, situated on the northern and eastern coast of the lake of Geneva,—having the Valais on the south, and Franche Comté on the west.

Q. How is that country divided?

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A. Into

A. Into twelve great bailiwics; the chief of which are Lausanne, Vevay and Morges, on the lake; Romainmotiers, Yverdun, Moudon, Payerne and Avenches, in the east. The largest city is Lausanne, the bishop of which, since the reformation, resides at Fribourg. It has a famous academy, and is governed by its own magistrates. There is a castle, and a cathedral adorned with marble, and reputed the finest Gothic temple in all Switzerland: that part of the country called Vaux, comprehends four parishes of the bailiwick of Lausanne, which produce excellent white wine. Vevay is a small, but ancient city, near the lake of Geneva;—Morges is also a little city on the same lake; has a port resorted to by French, Italian and German merchants. Romainmotiers is a small city, where there was formerly a rich abbey: there we find the lake of Joux, which becomes narrow towards the middle, and forms a canal, over which there is a bridge; its waters run under-ground—appear again, and form the river Orbe. Yverdun is a pretty city, situated on the western shore of the lake of Neufchatel: they undertook to join this lake by a canal to that of Geneva, but the project was laid aside. The city of Moudon is very ancient; it was the capital when the Pays de Vaud belonged to Savoy. Payerne was formerly a rich abbey; the bailiff has the title of governor; but has no share in the jurisdiction;—it

—it has its own magistrates. Avenches, in the time of the Romans, was a considerable city, and the capital of Helvetia: its circuit was extensive, as may yet be seen; but at present the city is very small;—there are still the remains of a noble amphitheatre, paved in mosaic: they meet with urns, medals, statues, and marble cornices, which prove its former magnificence. In the bailiwick of Aigle, which is part of the Pays de Vaud, there are curious salt-pits, marble quarries, crystalizations, mines of lead, sulphur, and many other curiosities.

LESSON XXXII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

3d. *Of the CANTON of LUCERNE.*

Q. WHERE is the canton of Lucerne situated?

A. That canton, the largest of the Catholic cantons, is bounded on the east by those of Zug and Schwitz, by that of Unterwald on the south, and on the two other sides by that of Berne: the capital is Lucerne, at the extremity of the lake of that name, and at the mouth of the river Reuss, over which there are three co-

vered bridges. It is the ordinary residence of the Spanish ambassador and the pope's nuncio. It was formerly subject to the house of Austria; but the inhabitants, tired of the Austrian oppression, threw off the yoke, and the city was received into the Helvetic confederation in 1332. It is governed much in the same manner as Berne; the chief of the republic has the title of Avoyer. There are several public edifices in the city,—the cathedral, the town-house, a college which belonged formerly to the Jesuits, and the water-tower, in the middle of the Reufs;—this tower had formerly a light-house for the use of the lake; thence the city took its name, and there the old records are kept.

Q. How is the canton divided?

A. Into fifteen bailiwicks; twelve interior, and three exterior. The principal cities are, Sursee and Sempach, with the abbeys of Munster and St. Urbain;—these two little cities are governed by their own laws, under the authority of the capital: they celebrate every year at Sempach, the battle which cemented the liberty of Switzerland. Munster is an abbey of regular canons; St. Urbain is a rich abbey of the order of Citeaux: the abbey is allied to the cantons of Berne and Soleure; and the treaty is renewed every time the abbé is changed.

Q. What mountains do you remark?

A. There

A. There is in the canton of Lucerne a very high mountain, called Mount Pilate, in which are found many natural curiosities; on its summit is a small lake, of which several fabulous stories have been related.

4th. Of the CANTON of URI.

Q. Where is the canton of Uri?

A. In the southern part of Switzerland proper; it contains no cities, but only boroughs and villages. It is bounded on the north by the canton of Schwitz; by the bailiwicks of Italy on the east; and by the cantons of Underwald and Berne, on the west. In the time of Julius Cæsar its inhabitants persuaded the other Helvetians to cross the Alps in search of a better country; and at the revolution, was one of the three who founded the confederation.

Q. How is it governed?

A. Democratically; the authority lies in the general assembly, composed of all inhabitants who have completed their fifteenth year. These assemblies are held yearly, and in the open country. Their magistrates in ordinary are sixty in number, chosen by the people; their chief is called Land-amman.

Q. How is it divided?

A. Into three parts; the canton proper, and the vallies of Urseren and Livine; the capital is Altdorf,

Altdorf, a large borough, a little distant from the lake of Lucerne, where resides the regency. Near this borough is the chapel of William Tell, where he left the boat, as said before. The valley of Urseren is properly under the protection of the canton; and that of Livine was ceded to the canton of Uri, in 1466, by Gelais-Maria, duke of Milan. There is an extraordinary bridge, called the devil's bridge, because they cannot conceive how men could build it; it bears on the points of two rocks, greatly elevated. There is also a mountain, called Mount St. Gothard, the most frequented passage to Italy, on the summit of which are seven small lakes, from which issue two rivers, the Reuss, and the Tessin, which run into Italy: On the declivity of this mountain there is a spot, called the Trembling Valley; it is a bridge, perpetually forming by ice and snow, which trembles beneath the traveller's feet; and under the ice, the river Tessin is heard to run with great rapidity.

LESSON XXXIII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

5th. *Of the CANTON of SCHWITZ.*

Q. How is the canton of Schwitz bounded?

A. On the north by those of Zurich and Zug; by Glaris on the east; by Uri on the south; and by the lake of Lucerne on the west.

Q. How is it governed?

A. Precisely in the same manner as Uri; it is the most extensive of the three first confederates. The capital is Schwitz, a large borough, near the lake of Lucerne; it is there that are held the general assemblies of the people, and is the residence of the regency. The canton is divided into six precincts: the inhabitants share the sovereign power, and give members to the magistracy; they also are in possession of four bailiwicks, two of which are only under their protection; those are Einsiedlen and la Marche; the first is a rich abbey of Benedictines; the abbé is a prince of the empire. Zuinglius was vicar of Einsiedlen before he preached the reformation. The abbey is a magnificent building; there is a miraculous statue of the Virgin Mary, a golden pyx,

pyx or box, in which the host is kept, which weighs 260 ounces, and is adorned with 1737 precious stones; and the fountain of the Virgin Mary, which is of marble, and throws water through fourteen pipes. There is also a place called Kufnacht, near which stood Gressler's castle, and a chapel built on the spot where William Tell killed him. There is besides, the village of Brunen, where the three confederate cantons swore their first alliance.

6th. Of the CANTON of UNDERWALD.

Q. Where is the canton of Underwald.

A. It is situated between those of Berne, Lucerne, and the lake of that name; it is divided into two vallies, one above the forest, and the other below; it contains only boroughs and villages. Their government is democratical; each valley has its land-amman and regency; but for foreign affairs they have a council of 58 members, taken from the two regencies. This canton is one of the three first confederates. There are the ruins of several ancient castles.

Q. Which is its capital?

A. Stantz, a large borough in the lower valley. There is a temple adorned with statues of marble, of which they have a quarry. There is also the borough of Sarnen, the independent abbey of Engelberg, under the protection of the cantons bordering on the lake of Lucerne; besides

sides the village of Saxelen. In this village is the tomb of Nicolas de Flue, a celebrated hermit, respectable for his piety and wisdom; he lived in the 15th century. The cantons often took his arbitration in their dissensions.

7th. Of the CANTON of ZUG.

Q. How is the canton of Zug situated?

A. North and east it is bounded by that of Zurich; south by Schwitz; and west by Lucerne. It formerly belonged to the house of Austria; the Switzers besieged it a short time after the revolution, and took the capital. They associated in the Helvetic confederation in 1352. This canton is divided into two parts; in the one the inhabitants are the sovereigns, and in the other they are subject to the first. The government is democratical; the people elect the land-amman; the council is composed of forty senators, thirteen of which come from the city, and twenty-seven from the country.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Zug, a tolerable large city, near the lake of that name. In the fifteenth century an earthquake swallowed up the lower part of the city; but the inhabitants have built new streets on the opposite side. In this canton are yet seen the baths of Watterfvyl, which belong to the abbé de Wettingen; and Morgarten, on the frontiers
of

of Schwitz, where was fought that famous battle already spoken of. In spiritual matters this canton, and the four preceding ones, depend on the bishop of Constance.

LESSON XXXIV.

SWITZERLAND *continued*

8th. Of the CANTON of GLARIS.

Q. How is the canton of Glaris situated?

A. It has Gaster in the north; the county of Sargans on the east; the Grisons south; and the cantons of Uri and Schwitz on the west. This country abounds in cattle and good pasture-land. They have linen manufactories. They make cheese, with sweet herbs, which is much admired. They have quarries of marble, and some of slates, which have on them the impressions of fishes: It formerly belonged to the abbey of Seckingen; the house of Austria had also pretensions to it; but being oppressed by the bailiffs, the Swiss delivered them, and received them into the Helvetic confederation in 1352. As to their
their

their religion, some are Protestants, and others Catholics; the former are much the greater number: in several villages the same chapel serves for both. The Catholics, in spiritual affairs, are subject to the bishop of Coire.

Q. How is this country governed?

A. It is divided into fifteen districts; each of them sends an equal number of members to the regency, which is composed of sixty-two counsellors, including the land-amman and the lieutenant, who are the two first magistrates; the general assembly of the people is held once a year; all the inhabitants aged sixteen, and upwards, are obliged to be there. The capital of the canton is Glaris, a large and well-built borough, in a valley, surrounded with mountains; there is also the village of Nafels, near which 350 of this canton defeated 15,000 Austrians in 1388; this battle is annually celebrated. There is also a fine convent of Capuchins; they have besides this, the manor of Verdenberg, on the Rhine. The inhabitants are Protestants, governed by a bailiff of the same religion.

9th. *Of the CANTON of BASLE, or BASIL.*

Q. What is the situation of the canton of Basle?

A. Its northern part is out of the ancient limits of Helvetia; Swabia bounds it on that side, and on the east; it has Soleure on the south, and
Alsace

Alsace on the west. The sovereign power resides in the burgeses of the capital: the regency is composed of two hundred and eighty members; the lesser council of sixty senators; the chiefs are two burgo-masters, and two tribunes.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Basil, on the Rhine, which divides it in two unequal parts; it is a rich and trading city, and the largest of all Switzerland; it was formerly an imperial city: it had bishops till the reformation, when the burgeses of the largest part of the city bought the lesser of the bishops. In the thirteenth century, the nobles of Basil left the city, and joined the emperor Maximilian in his wars against the Swiss. The burgeses, in 1501, entered into the Helvetic confederation, and since then the nobles are excluded from all posts. The city is famous for its university, which is the only one in Switzerland; it has produced great men in all sciences: It is also well known for the council held there in the fifteenth century. The most remarkable things to be seen are, the cathedral, where is the tomb of Erasmus; the town-house, the library, and the museum, where they shew several pictures of the famous Holbein. They embraced the reformation much about the same time as Berne; the burgeses then turned the bishops out of the city.

Q. How

Q. How is the canton divided?

A. Into seven bailiwics; the most remarkable places are, Augst, Liechfall, and Vallenbourg. Augst, though but a village at present, was formerly a city, inhabited by the Romans; there are still remains of its magnificence. Liechfall is a small city belonging to the bishop of Basle: Vallenbourg is also a small city, in a passage of Mount Jura, with an elevated castle to defend that passage.

LESSON XXXV.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

10. *Of the CANTON of FRIBOURG.*

Q. WHERE is the canton of Fribourg?

A. It is in the southern part of Switzerland; it is surrounded entirely by the canton of Berne, except a narrow neck of land towards the north. The government is aristocratic; there are but a certain number of families entitled to occupy public places: The regency is composed of two hundred members, who form the sovereign council. The capital is Fribourg, on the Save,

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a pretty large city, but irregular. The prelate, who takes the title of bishop of Lausanne, resides there. St. Nicholas, the cathedral, is remarked for its fine steeple: It has a college, formerly under the direction of the Jesuits. The city was founded in 1179, by Berthold, fourth duke of Zeringue; has belonged successively to the counts Kybourg, Hapsbourg, and Savoy; and entered into the Helvetic confederation in 1481. The territory of Fribourg has been aggrandized by purchases of land, and wars with Savoy. Near the city is an hermitage, hewn out of a rock, which has a chapel and its steeple, a dining-hall, a parlour, and two rooms, all done by the labour of an hermit and his valet, who worked at it twenty-five years. The hermit was unfortunately drowned, crossing the Save, in 1708.

Q. What is contained in that canton?

A. Nineteen exterior, and four interior bailiwicks; the latter were their former possessions. The most remarkable places are Gruyeres, Romont, and Estavayer. Gruyeres had formerly its own counts; but by the extravagance of the last count, his estates were sold to the Bernois, and those of Fribourg. Romont had also its counts, who were of the younger branch of Savoy; the last of them forfeited all his estates, for having, in the fifteenth century, taken part with the duke of Burgundy against the Swis.

Estavayer,

Estavayer, on the lake of Neufchatel, had also its own lords; there is the remains of a castle: There are several convents, such as the Carthusians, the abbey of Hauterive, &c. one in the bailiwick of Gruyeres, and the other in that of Romont.

11th. *Of the CANTON of SOLEURE.*

Q. What are the boundaries of Soleure?

A. It is bounded on the north by the canton of Basle; by that of Berne east and south; and by the territories of the bishop of Basle on the west. Their government is aristocratic; the burgeses of the capital have an exclusive right to public places. The grand council is composed of one hundred members, and the senate of thirty-three; the chiefs are two avoyers, who sit annually. For spiritual affairs they depend on the bishops of Constance, Basle, and Lausanne. The capital is Soleure on the Aar, a very ancient city, tolerably large, and fortified in the modern style, in an agreeable valley, at the foot of mount Jura; it was formerly an imperial city: its inhabitants joined those of Berne in the wars against the house of Austria; as it did the Swiss against the duke of Burgundy, and was admitted to the confederation in 1481. Soleure has a collegiate church, composed of twelve canons and a provost; the French ambassador always resides there. They have a cathedral newly built; the

house which belonged to the Jesuits, and the French ambassador's hotel are situated near the ramparts.

Q. How is the canton divided?

A. Into twelve bailiwicks; eight exterior, and four interior. Most of their lands belonged to different noblemen, who sold them by degrees to the city of Soleure. There is the little city of Olten, which has a bridge on the Aar; Dornock, a castle on the Birs, near which the Swiss gained a battle over the Germans in 1409.

LESSON XXXVI.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

12th. *Of the CANTON of SCHAFFHAUSEN.*

Q. WHERE is the canton of Schaffhausen?

A. It is situate beyond the Rhine, and in Germany. It has Zurich on the south; and Swabia on the three other sides. The sovereignty belongs to the capital, which is divided into twelve tribes or clans, one of which is composed of the nobles. The regency has eighty-four members, which form the grand and little council: The

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chief

chief magistrate is a burgo-master. The capital is Schaffhausen, an ancient, large, and trading city on the Rhine; it has a bridge, ingeniously contrived; it was formerly an imperial city; and had been mortgaged to the house of Austria, but they redeemed themselves, and insured their liberty, by entering into the confederation in 1501. They have an antique fortress, named Unoth; the town-house, and two very large churches; the cathedral, and the church of St. John.

Q. How is the canton divided?

A. Into ten small bailiwicks; none are remarkable except Neukirch, a small city, well-built; all the streets run parallel to each other.

13th. *Of the CANTON of APPENZEL.*

Q. WHERE is the canton of Appenzel?

A. In the eastern part of Switzerland; having the territories of the abbé of St. Gall on the north; Rheinthal in the east; and Toggenbourg west and south. It is divided into two parts, which form two republicks, independent of each other for private affairs, but united for their common interest; each has six communities, or what they call Rôdes; the government of both is democratic; they each hold their general assembly once a year. Six of the rôdes are Catholics, and the others Protestants; the latter are much the most numerous. In the sixteenth cen-

tury there was a religious war in that country, which was brought to a conclusion by the mediation of the other cantons, who decided that the interior rôdes should be occupied by the Catholics, and the exterior by the Protestants. The Catholics, in religious affairs, are directed by the bishop of Constance; the Protestants have their own synod; as they have also in all the other Protestant cantons

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Appenzel, on the river Sitter; a rich borough, very populous, and a place of trade; there is also Herisau, an ancient borough. They have some natural curiosities; among others, a sort of white crystal, scored at right angles with black stripes, and many other curious productions.

LESSON XXXVII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

The Countries subject to SWITZERLAND.

Q. WHAT subjects have the Swifs?

A. Their subjects are those countries situated out of the limits, and in the neighbourhood of the

the cantons; which countries have either been conquered in their wars, or given up to them by treaties; they are possessed and governed in common. They may be divided into three classes, according to their situation; the first east, the second south, and the third west of Switzerland.

I. *The EASTERN CLASS.*

Q. Which are the countries of that division?

A. There are in the east seven provinces; viz, the county of Baden; the free provinces, Thurgau, Rheinthal; the county of Sargans, Gaster, and the city of Rapperswyl. The county of Baden, east of Zurich, and west of Berne, is an extensive country, very fruitful and populous, watered by three rivers, the Aar, the Reuss, and the Limmat: it belonged to the house of Austria when the Swiss took it, in 1415, and was guaranteed to them in 1474; and, since the treaty of Arau, in 1718, it belongs solely to the cantons of Zurich and Berne. Baden is the capital, an ancient and pretty large city, famous for its mineral bath. Their religion is mixed, but the Catholics are most numerous.

Q. Which are the free provinces?

A. They are a long and narrow tract of land south of Baden, between the cantons of Zurich and Berne. They are so called, because they were formerly three independent manors the Swiss

took them from the Austrians at the same time they took Baden: It was possessed by six cantons till the peace of Arau; in virtue of that treaty, a line was drawn from east to west, which separates it into two provinces, north and south; the northern belongs to Zurich and Berne, the other to different cantons. They are all Catholics, and depend on the bishop of Constance. They have Bremgarten and Meltingen, both on the Reuss, which are governed by their own laws: there is also the rich abbey of Muri, a fine building, in which there is a library, where many curious manuscripts are preserved.

LESSON XXXVIII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

Of the Countries subject to SWITZERLAND.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Thurgau?

A. It has the lake of Constance on the east; the canton of Zurich on the west; and the abbé St. Gall's possessions on the south: It is a rich
and

and populous country, and the largest bailiwick of Switzerland: it takes its name from the river Thur, which crosses it from south to north. It comprehended formerly, under the name of Landgravate, all the eastern part of Switzerland. It belonged to the house of Austria; the seven ancient cantons conquered it 1460, and confirmed to the people the privileges they enjoy: Several cantons were sovereigns of it, among which that of Berne has had a share since the peace of Arau. Each canton, in its turn, sends a bailiff for two years. The assemblies are held yearly at Weinfelden; their president is captain of the country, and chosen amongst them by the sovereign cantons. The Roman Catholic and Protestant religions are professed openly, though the latter is much superior in number. The capital of all the country is Frawenfeld, a small city, where resides the bailiff; it has two churches, which serve in common for both religions. There are three other little cities, Arbon, Bischofzell, and Diefenhoffen: they have also a great number of rich abbeys; the most considerable are Rheinau and Richenau.

Q. What is Rheinthal?

A. It is a long and narrow valley, traversed in all its length by the Rhine, which enters the lake of Constance in the north, and the canton of Appenzel in the west. The country is rich and populous, produces good wine, and trades deeply
in

in linen and flax. It was sold to the people of Appenzel; but some of the ancient cantons took it from them in the wars against the abbé de St. Gall. It now belongs to the seven ancient cantons. Appenzel has a share in the sovereignty since they entered the confederation, and Berne since the treaty of Arau. The greatest part of the inhabitants are Protestants, but the Catholics exercise their religion openly. Rheineck, situated on the spot where the Rhine enters the lake of Constance, is the capital; a small, but trading city; it has a castle, where the bailiff resides.

LESSON XXXIX.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

Of the Country subject to SWITZERLAND.

Q. Where is Sargans situated?

A It is between Toggenbourg north; the Grisons east; and Glaris west: It formerly had its counts, who sold it, in 1485, to the seven cantons, who, jointly with Berne, are sovereigns of it at present, and each sends a bailiff in its turn. It is divided into two parts by the river Save,

Save, which are called Upper and Lower Sargans. Their religion is mixed. The capital is Sargans, in the upper part; it has a castle, on a rock, where the bailiff resides. The remarkable places are, Vallenstadt, Fulmo, well known for its steel-foundry, and the abbey of Pleffers; it is a rich abbey; the abbé is a prince of the empire; the building is magnificent, and inlaid with marble: near it are some renowned baths, which have a wonderful effect: They belong to the abbé.

Q. Where is Gaster?

A. Gaster is between Toggembourg east, and the canton of Schwitz west: it belonged to the house of Austria, who sold it to the cantons of Schwitz and Glaris, in 1462, who possess it in common. It is divided into the bailiwics of Gaster and Utznack, and governed by the sovereign cantons. We remark Utznack, the capital, which is a little city, and Schennis, a borough, and a celebrated abbey of nuns, who may all, if they choose, leave the monastery, and enter into the marriage-state, except the abbess, who is titled a princess of the empire.

Q. What is Rapperswyl?

A. It is a tolerable large city and well-built; situated on a neck of land, which advances into the lake of Zurich; it has a bridge which crosses the whole width of the lake; it is 1750 paces long. This city had its counts; but the family
being

being extinct, it devolved to the house of Austria; and the inhabitants put themselves under the protection of the cantons of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, and Glaris, who governed it sovereignly. At the peace of Arau they took their former privileges, under the protection of Zurich and Berne; for that reason it is reckoned among the subjects of the Swiss. The inhabitants are Catholics, and the Capuchins have there a very fine convent.

LESSON XL.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

2d. *Of the Southern Countries subject to SWITZERLAND.*

Q. WHAT are their southern possessions?

A. They are in possession of seven governments, which were formerly part of the dutchy of Milan; they are Mendrisio, Lugano, Locarno, Val Madia, Billinzone, Riviera, and Val Brenna; the four first belong to twelve cantons, that of Appenzel being excluded: the other three are possessed solely by Uri, Schwitz, and Under-

Underwald. They were abandoned to the cantons by Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan, for the services rendered him by the Swiss in his wars in Italy;—and confirmed to them by Francis I. king of France. The sovereign cantons send alternately a bailiff, as governor, whose place is for two years. The inhabitants have great prerogatives; they speak broken Italian; they are industrious. The soil produces wine, and good pastures: They are rigid Catholics. Each government bears the name of its capital. The chief cities are Lugano and Locarno.

3d. *Of the Western Countries subject to SWITZERLAND.*

Q. What are their western possessions?

A. Four bailiwicks; Schwartzembourg, Grandson, Echallens, and Morat, which belong to Berne and Fribourg. In 1424 they bought Schwartzembourg of the house of Savoy; conquered Morat from the same; and also those of Grandson and Echallens from the house of Chalons; all which were confirmed in 1476. They are governed by bailiffs sent alternately by the two cantons. Schwartzembourg, Morat and Grandson, are Protestants; at Echallens both religions are professed in the same church. The canton of Berne has alone the spiritual and temporal jurisdiction at Schwartzembourg. Morat is a small city, on the lake of that name. Grandson

fon is also a small city, with a castle, on the lake of Neufchatel. In the bailiwick of Echallens is the city of Orbe, on the river of that name; it was very considerable in the time of the Romans. There are several remains of its ancient grandeur, such as mosaic pavements, destroyed columns and porticoes, fragments of marble, &c. There is also the borough of Gersau, near the lake of Lucerne, which is independent.

LESSON LXI.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

Of the Swiss Allies.

Q. Who are the people allied to Switzerland?

A. They are countries bordering the cantons; who, at different times, have formed alliances with the Helvetic corps, or with some of its cantons, and preserved their independence:—These are of two classes, those associated to the nation, and who constitute a part of it, with their seats and votes in the diet; and those who are simply allied, without those prerogatives. Of the first class are the abbey and city of St.

Gall

Gall in the east; the city of Mulhausen in the north; and that of Bienne in the west: Those simply allied are, the Grisons and the Valais in the south; the republic of Geneva in the west; the principality of Neufchatel, and the bishoprick of Basle in the north.

1st. Of the Abbey of St. Gall.

Q. Where is the abbey of St. Gall situated?

A. The abbey of St. Gall is situated within the precinct of the city of that name; separated, nevertheless, by a wall, which surrounds it; and are absolutely independent of each other. The abbé takes the title of prince of the empire, has possessions in Germany, and holds a council of regency in the abbey; he is elected by the monks, who are one hundred in number, and the lot always falls on one of themselves. He is not only the first ally of the Switzers, but has also some particular alliances with the cantons of Zurich, Lucerne, Schwitz, and Glaris, who are the protectors of the abbey and its territories. His subjects are of two classes; the first are the inhabitants of the country between Thurgau and the lake of Constance; the second are those of the country of Toggenbourg. In the former is the little city of Wyl, where the abbé has a palace; and Roschach, a borough, with a castle, on the lake of Constance. The inhabitants are Catholics. Toggenbourg is bounded by Thurgau

gau north; by Appenzel east; by Gaster south; and by Zurich west: It is surrounded by high mountains. This country is reputed for its cotton manufacture.

2d. Of the City of ST. GALL.

Q. How is the city of St. Gall situated?

A. The city of St. Gall is situated north of Appenzel, at some distance from the lake of Constance; it formerly depended on the abbé; but they obtained their liberty by degrees, either by purchases from him, or obtaining privileges from the emperor: and, to confirm their freedom, they entered into an alliance with the cantons of Zurich, Berne, Schwitz, Lucerne, and Glaris. It is governed aristocratically; its chiefs are three burgo-masters, who preside in their turns, and are chosen by the bailiffs. The city is tolerably large, and well-built: it is famous for its manufactures, and trade in fine linens. The inhabitants are all Protestants. Its territories, beyond the walls, are of little extent; they have bailiwicks in the county of Thurgau. Near the city, on the river Goldach, they have a bridge of a singular construction.

3d. Of the City of MULHAUSEN.

Q. Where and what is the city of Mulhausen?

A. It is situated in the Sundgau, beyond the limits of Switzerland, surrounded on all sides by the

the French territories. It was formerly an imperial city: the bishop of Strasburgh made a conquest of it; but the emperor Rodolphus I. re-established them in all their former privileges. They entered into an alliance with the cantons of Berne, Fribourg, Soleure, and Basle, and afterwards, in 1515, with the whole Helvetic corps, of which they still constitute a part; though the Catholic cantons declined their alliance, in 1588, on account of two Catholic citizens who had been exiled; but the troubles were soon settled by the Protestant cantons. The government is aristocratic; the council is composed of seventy-nine members; the principal magistrates are three burgo-masters, who govern by turns. It is a trading, well-built, and populous city: the river Ill surrounds it on all sides. The inhabitants are Protestants: They have a small territory without their walls.

4th. Of the City of BIENNE.

Q. What is the city of Bienne?

A. The city of Bienne, and its territories, form a small state, situated between the canton of Soleure on the east; the principality of Neuchatel on the west; and the canton of Berne on the south. The sovereignty belongs partly to the bishop of Basle, and partly to the capital. At the nomination of the bishop, the citizens, under

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certain

certain conditions, pay him homage, and confirm his prerogatives: he receives a part of all fines, and names a mayor, who assists at all the councils, but has not a deciding vote. The city has the civil and criminal jurisdiction, and many other privileges, such as tolls, customs, and part of the fines. Bienne first associated with the cantons of Berne, Fribourg, and Soleure, and after with the whole Helvetic corps, in 1476; but besides that, they have a private contract with Berne. It is situate at the foot of mount Jura, on the river Suse, and near the lake of that name; it is moderately large, and its inhabitants are Protestants. On the same lake we find Neuveville, or Bonneville, under the authority of the bishop of Basle; but it has its particular council, and enjoys great privileges. The bishop keeps there a lord temporal, who resides in an ancient castle near the city. They are Protestants, and, like those of Bienne, independent of the prince in spiritual affairs.

LESSON

LESSON XLII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*5th. *Of the Country of the GRISONS.*

Q. Where is the Grisons' country situated?

A. It is situate in the eastern part of Switzerland. Its boundary, north and east, is the county of Tirol; on the south, the bailiwicks of Italy, and the States of Venice; and on the west, the cantons of Uri and Glaris. This country is the most extensive of all those allied to the Swifs. It is covered with mountains, but, nevertheless, well peopled. The low grounds, in some places, produce corn and wine.

Q. To whom did it formerly belong?

A. It was divided amongst a great number of sovereign lords, who being continually at war with each other, inhumanly oppressed their subjects. The people united in the fifteenth century to defend themselves against their tyrants. They attacked them one after the other,—obliged several of them to fly the country,—bought their liberty of the others, and thus became independent: in short, to cement their liberty, they made a strict union with the Swifs, in 1497; and contracted a perpetual alliance with the seven

elder cantons. They sustained a long war against the emperor Charles V. who had formed the design of seizing Valteline, in order to form a free communication between his German states and his dutchy of Milan, in Italy. They demanded assistance from France, whose interest it was to oppose the emperor's views, and who sent them a succour of troops. This war was brought to an issue in 1639, by a treaty, which has since been often ratified. The Grisons recovered Valteline, and are at this day allied to France and the house of Austria.

Q. What constitutes the country of the Grisons?

A. It forms a republic, divided into three clans; the Grise west, the Caddée south, and ten jurisdictions in the east. In 1742 they formed a perpetual confederation, and constituted but one state; nevertheless, each division has preserved its independence for private affairs. The government is democratic; the sovereignty resides in the general diet, to which each clan sends its deputies. Every clan is composed of a certain number of corporations, every one of which elects its magistrates, and is governed by its own laws. Public affairs are communicated to each corporation, where all citizens of the age of sixteen have their seats; and they are decided by a majority: after which, those affairs are carried before the general diet, where each
clan

clan has a certain number of votes, which do not depend on the deputies; and all is decided by a majority of votes. The general diet alternately assembles at Jlantz, Coire, and Davos. Each clan has also what may be called a provincial diet, to which they elect a president, and regulate private affairs.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. The reformation is their general persuasion; there are, notwithstanding, some Catholics: the bishop of Coire and his chapter hold the first rank; there are also some few abbeys. Coire is looked upon as the capital of the Grisons; it is situated in the Caddée, a little distance from the Rhine; it is separated in two parts, one, where the bishop and canons reside, which includes the cathedral; the other is called the city. The bishop is a prince of the empire; he has the prerogative of the mint; he was formerly sovereign of the city, but it is now independent: his revenues have been greatly curtailed by the reformation.

Q. How is the city governed?

A. It has its own magistrates and form of government; the chief of the regency is a burgo-master, who is at the same time president of the clan of Caddée. It has also a mint; and all the inhabitants are Protestants.

Q. What constitutes the Caddée?

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A. It

A. It comprehends the valley of Eugad'ne, where the river Inn takes its rise ; it has also the borough of St. Maurice, known for its mineral waters.

Q. What is found in the Grise?

A. The little city of Jlantz, the first that is met with on the Rhine : near that city is Disentis, an ancient and rich abbey of Benedictines.

Q. What is met within the ten jurisdictions ?

A. Nothing remarkable but the village of Davos, where the provincial diet is held. The house of Austria raises a revenue from that country, which formerly depended on the Tirol. Part of the mountains of the Grisons were anciently called the Julienne Alps ; and there are still in Eugadine, the remains of columns, which are thought to have been erected by Julius Cæsar or Augustus. The Grisons possess four countries in common, viz. the county of Bormio, the county of Chiavenne, the Valteline, and the lordship of Meyenfeld, which in all form nine bailiwics, the three first in the south, and the fourth towards the north ; the two counties and the Valteline were ceded to them in 1512, by Maximilian Sforza, duke of Milan ; and in 1509, they had bought the lordship of Meyenfeld. The inhabitants of this lordship are Protestants ; those of the three others are Catholics.

Q. What happened with regard to religion ?

A. The

A. The Protestants were very numerous in the last century, but the Catholics made a general slaughter of them; since that, the free exercise of religion has been prohibited in the Valteline.

Q. Which are the capitals of those countries?

A. The cities of Bormio and Chiavenne are the capitals of the counties of those names; Meyenfeld is a pretty city on the Rhine: Sondrio and Tirano, are boroughs on the Valteline. In the last century there existed a rich and well-built borough in the county of Chiavenne, named Pleurs, which was entirely destroyed by the fall of a neighbouring mountain, and its inhabitants buried in the ruins. The country of Valteline produces wine much esteemed; they dig grottos in the rocks, which serve them for cellars; they meet with a sort of blue stone, which they work on the lathe, and convert to many uses.

LESSON XLIII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

6th. Of the VALAIS.

Q. What is meant by the Valais?

A. It is a long and narrow vale, which extends from east to west, and traversed in its whole

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length

length by the Rhone: it is bounded on the north by the canton of Berne, on the east by Uri, on the south by Piedmont and the Milanese, by Savoy and the lake of Geneva on the west. It is divided into Upper Valais in the east, and Lower Valais in the west: the first is separated from the second by the river Morge, and contains seven communities. The Valais was formerly a part of the German empire; afterwards the upper part was allotted to the bishop of Sion, and the remainder to the house of Savoy. The people finding themselves oppressed by the bishop, endeavoured to restrain his power; but he, assisted by Savoy, raised a civil war in the country. The inhabitants, aided by the canton of Berne, routed his troops, and gained the Lower Valais, which has been subjected to them ever since.

Q. What connection have they with the Swifs?

A. After having formed, at different times, alliances with several cantons, they were at last admitted into the Helvetic corps in 1529; they have, besides, a particular alliance with the seven Catholic cantons, and are comprised in the alliance with France. There were formerly a great number of Protestants, but they were all drove away by the Catholics, which is now the only religion professed there.

Q. How is the Valais governed?

A. The

A. The sovereignty is divided between the bishop of Sion and the deputies of the communities of the Upper Valais; the bishop has the title of prince of the empire, and count of Valais; he coins money, and is elected by his canons and the deputies of the communities. The second dignitary is the bailiff or captain-general; he is elected by the bishop and deputies; he judges all civil causes: The general assembly of Upper Valais is held twice a year at Sion; the bishop presides, and the bailiff collects the votes; it names the governors of Lower Valais, and decides absolutely on all affairs: Besides this, each community has its council, and its chief, stiled Mayor.

Q. Which is the capital of Valais?

A. Sion, in the Upper Valais, on the river Sitten, and near the Rhone; it is a large city, has two castles, Bourbillon and Valeria, besides the mayory, which is the usual residence of the bishop; these castles command the country: Near it there is also the large borough of Brieg, where resides the captain; and Leuck, famous for its hot baths, which are much frequented. These baths are situated in a deep valley, at the foot of the high mountain of Gemmi: they have hewn a passage in the rock, which is the only one by which the summit can be attained,

Q. How is the Valais divided?

A. Into

A. Into fix bailiwics or governments; three on the right, and three on the left shore of the Rhone: We remark the ancient borough of Martigni, and the little city of St. Maurice, with a famous abbey. Near St. Maurice there is a fine bridge, on the Rhone, defended by a castle; this bridge is the communication between Valais and Berne. In the road from Valais to Piedmont, crossing mount St. Bernard, there is an hospitable convent, where travellers are lodged and treated gratis. Near the city of Sion there is a convent entirely hewn out of the rock.

LESSON LXIV.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

7th. Of the Republic of GENEVA.

Q. WHAT constitutes the republic of Geneva?

A. It comprehends only its capital and a territory of little extent; it is situated at the western extremity of the lake Lemman, or lake of Geneva, and bounded on all sides by France and Savoy. Geneva is an ancient city, well known in history,
from

from the time of Julius Cæsar, and the decline of the empire. It was successively subject to the Franks, Burgundians, and the emperors of Germany. Frederick II. granted many privileges to it, made it an imperial city, and afterwards gave up all his claims over it to the bishop of Geneva. The sovereignty over the city was sometime after disputed, by the bishops, the counts of Geneva, and the dukes of Savoy: The former made themselves masters of it by purchasing the claims of the house of Savoy. In fine, the Genevese, having discarded their bishop at the epoch of the reformation, in 1534, formed themselves into a republic, and established that form of government which exists to this day.

Q. What did the duke of Savoy attempt against them?

A. Charles Emanuel, duke of Savoy, formed the design of storming the city, in the night of the 12th of December, 1602; and though a great number of soldiers, with their chiefs, had scaled the walls, and penetrated into the city, the citizens flew to arms, drove them back, and took several of their chiefs, whom they executed immediately: after which the duke, through the mediation of France, concluded a treaty with Geneva, at St. Julien, and relinquished all his pretensions.

Q. What is the government of Geneva?

A. It

A. It is democratic; the sovereignty resides in the general assembly of all the citizens of twenty-five years of age, and upwards. This assembly is held the first day of the year, and has great power; it elects the magistrates, who are accountable to the assembly; it establishes and abrogates laws, regulates taxes, decides solely on peace and war, and treats with foreign powers. All affairs whatever are settled by a majority.

Q. How is the magistracy composed?

A. Of a great and little council; the grand council is composed of two hundred, and the little one of twenty-five; these two bodies have at their head four syndics, who hold their places but one year. All affairs are discussed and decided by these councils, except those which by their importance, require to be brought before the general assembly.

Q. What disturbances have happened?

A. In the year 1736 the citizens persuaded themselves that the magistrates went beyond the power committed to them, and in consequence, took up arms; but these disturbances were appeased by the mediation of France and the allied cantons: These disturbances were renewed, for the same cause, and were again settled, in 1768; but having since broke out again, with more violence, have given rise to a change in the republic.

Q. What is that change?

A. France,

A. France, Sardinia, and the canton of Berne, having sent troops, took possession of Geneva; and it is now garrisoned by the soldiers of these three powers, who are allied to the republic;—they have given them to understand that their intention for so doing was, to establish a permanent tranquillity in Geneva.

Q. In what manner is Geneva connected with Switzerland?

A. It entered into the Helvetic confederation in 1588, and has a particular alliance with Zurich and Berne. The reformation, of the Calvinistic persuasion, is the only religion professed. Calvin and Theodore de Beza lived many years at Geneva, and they both died there.

Q. What is remarked of that city?

A. Where the Rhone issues from the lake, it divides the city of Geneva into two unequal parts: It is a city of great trade, well-built, advantageously situated, and fortified in the modern manner: It has a celebrated academy.

Q. What does Geneva possess out of the city?

A. Its outward territories are not considerable; they formerly held them in common with the duke of Savoy; but they have acquired the duke's portion by a treaty; on which occasion the republic negotiated with that prince, as a sovereign and independent state, in 1756.

LESSON XXVII.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*8th. *Of the Principality of NEUFCHATEL.*

Q. WHAT is the principality of Neufchatel ?

A. It is a petty state; bounded on the north by Franch-Comté; by the archbishoprick of Basle on the east; by the lake of Neufchatel on the south; and by the bailiwick of Grandson on the west. Though it is a mountainous country in some parts, it is productive and populous; they have extensive vineyards, which give them very good red wine: Of late years they have had a tolerable brisk trade, especially in the capital, and divers arts and sciences have been cultivated with success; such as printed linens, watches, and cutlery work in all its branches.

Q. What does the principality contain ?

A. It comprehends the county of Neufchatel, and that of Valengin; the latter had formerly its counts, who were tributary to the former; these counts were of the house of Neufchatel, and originally of Burgundy. The last of that house was Lewis, who left only two daughters, Isabella and Varenna; the first succeeded him, and dying

without children, instituted for her heir, Conrad of Fribourg, her nephew. John of Fribourg, his son, dying without issue, made a will, by which he bequeathed the principality to Rodolphus of Hochberg, his cousin, who descended by the female line from the ancient counts of Neufchatel. Philip of Hochberg, who succeeded to his father Rodolphus, had but one daughter, named Jane, who married, in 1504, Lewis of Orleans, duke of Longueville; she brought him in dowry the county of Neufchatel, which remained in that family for the space of two hundred years: about that time the duke of Longueville was in the service of the king of France, and engaged in his wars in Italy; the Swiss, who declared against France, took possession of Neufchatel; they governed it two years; but when the war was ended, they returned it to its owner, in 1529.

Q. Who was the most famous prince of that family?

A. The most renowned count of Neufchatel, of the house of Orleans, was Henry II. who was first plenipotentiary for France at the peace of Westphalia, in 1648; he had two sons, the eldest of which was known by the name of the abbé de Orleans; who, having entered into holy orders, gave up his pretensions to the count de St. Pol, his younger brother; he had also a daughter, who married the duke of Nemours.

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The count de St. Pol being killed, passing the Rhine, in 1672, and unmarried, the abbé de Orleans resumed all his rights, and was acknowledged prince of Neufchatel, a title which he preserved till his death. His succession was disputed by the dutchess of Nemours, his sister, and the prince de Conti, whom the abbé had named his universal heir; but the states, according to the laws of the country, awarded it to the dutchess; who, after having enjoyed it many years, died without issue, in 1707.

Q. What happened after that ?

A. This sovereignty was then claimed by several princes, under different pretensions, which they laid before the states; and it was decided in favour of Frederick I. king of Prussia, and it has since remained to that family.

Q. How is it connected with Switzerland ?

A. The prince of Neufchatel is allied to the cantons of Berne, Lucerne, Fribourg, and Soleure; he has also a particular communication with the states of Berne, who arbitrate all differences between the prince and the citizens. The government is monarchical; the prince keeps a governor there; but his authority is limited by that of the people, who have great prerogatives, such as, obliging the sovereignty to reside in the country; that all civil affairs shall be decided by the tribunal of the states; that the people shall be exempted from taxes; that

that they shall have the privilege of enlisting in foreign service, the same as the Swiss, provided their sovereign be not engaged against those powers.

Q. What is the tribunal of the states?

A. It is composed of twelve judges; *i. e.* four nobles, four castellanies, or judges of a castleward, and four city councils; besides the governor, who is president.

Q. What is their religion?

A. Farel preached the reformation at Neufchatel, in 1530, and all the inhabitants adopted it, except those of the castelany of Landeron, who are still Catholics. The reformed clergy formed a synod, which enjoys many privileges, particularly that of naming to vacant rectories.

LESSON XLVI.

SWITZERLAND *continued.*

Of the Principality of NEUFCHATEL.

Q. How is the state of Neufchatel divided?

A. It is composed, as said before, of the counties of Neufchatel and Valengin, which, together,

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compose

compose nineteen jurisdictions; *i. e.* four castellanies, and fifteen mayoralties.

Q. How were they united?

A. In the fifteenth century the two counties were separated; they were again united in 1592, when Maria de Bourbon, widow of Leonor d'Orleans, purchased the county of Valengin of its owner, the count Montbeliard.

Q. Which is the capital of the states?

A. Neufchatel, on the lake of that name; a pretty large city, agreeably situated, and well-built; the residence of the governor. This city has its particular magistrates and a council, which has the civil government of the city, and its liberties; the general council is formed of two others, one of forty members, and the other of twenty-four; their chiefs are four capital burgeses, called the four ministerialists; they hold their places two years, and each presides six months; there is a general assembly of the citizens every three years.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. Two small cities, Landeron and Boudri, with the borough of Valengin, capital of the county of that name.

Q. What is remarked of the county of Valengin?

A. That the people have very great privileges; they assemble every three years to elect magistrates: there are also two villages, situate

between the mountains, which contain near six thousand souls; they are called Locle and La Chaux-de-fond; they are almost all able watch-makers, who send their work all over Europe: their mountains and marl-pits abound in shells, and other natural curiosities.

8th. Of the Bishoprick of BASLE.

Q. WHERE is the bishoprick of Basle situated?

A. The territories of that bishoprick form a principality of some extent; it is bounded on the north by Sundgau; by the canton of Soleure south and east; and by the county of Montbeliard on the west. It is governed monarchically; the bishop is the temporal sovereign; he ranks among the princes of the empire, for the circle of the Upper Rhine; he had formerly great prerogatives over the city of Basle, which he lost at the time of the reformation; he then sold to the canton of Basle all that part of the city on the right shore of the Rhine, with some other of his possessions: he is only allied to the seven Catholic cantons, but he has a particular alliance with France.

Q. How is this country divided?

A. As the two religions are professed in this principality, it is separated into the Catholic and Protestant divisions. The capital of the bishoprick is Porentrui, a small city, with a castle,

where the bishop has resided since the reformation. In the Catholic division there is Delmont and St. Ursane, the rich abbey of Bellelay, independent of the abbé, and also the village of Arlesheim, where the canons of Basle retired at the time of the reformation. They enjoy a great revenue, and have a right to elect a bishop, who is generally chosen from among themselves. The principal places of the Protestant division are, Bienne and Neuveville, with Motiers-Grand-Val, under the protection of Berne; there is also le Val St. Ymier. We meet, in the bishoprick of Basle, a road cut through a rock, called Pierre Pertuis; it was formed by the Romans, for a communication between the country of Rauragues and Helvetia; there yet remains an inscription, but it is almost defaced.

LESSON XLVII.

Of the NETHERLANDS.

Q. WHERE are the Netherlands situated?

A. They are bounded by France, on the south; by Germany, on the east; and by the ocean on the

the two other sides: they are also called the Low Countries, because they are near the sea, and at the mouths of several rivers. These provinces formerly constituted what was called Belgia; they were conquered by France, in the fifth century, and the successors of Charlemagne were in possession of them till the ninth. At the decline of the empire, the governors of them usurped the sovereign power, and formed seventeen provinces, which still subsist: after having had their separate sovereigns for a considerable time, they passed, either by marriages or conquests, to the family of Flanders, and afterwards to that of Burgundy, who united them all.

Q. How did the house of Austria come to possess them?

A. Charles the Bold, the last duke of Burgundy, having but one daughter, named Maria, that princess, in 1477, married Maximilian, archduke of Austria, and brought him for her dowry, the Low Countries and Franche Comté. The emperor Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, who inherited these provinces, having been raised to the crown of Spain, the Low Countries became a part of that monarchy, and were subject to Philip II. son and successor of Charles V.

Q. What was Philip II.'s plan?

A. In 1565 he formed a design of depriving these provinces of the privileges they had till then enjoyed, and of establishing the inquisition,

on pretence that some of them had embraced the reformation.

Q. What was the effect?

A. Philip II. having made the duke of Alva governor of the Low Countries, his cruelty towards them exasperated the people to such a degree, that the heads of the nobility united for the defence of their liberty, and freed themselves from the yoke of Spain.

Q. What ensued?

A. They formed two bodies in 1579; the eight northern provinces, who had adhered to the Protestant religion, established an union between themselves, which has ever since subsisted, and chose for their chief William Prince of Orange, of the house of Nassau. The United Provinces, supported by France and England, headed by Maurice and Frederic Henry, sons of William, defended themselves with the greatest success, against all the forces of Spain, which has never been able to subdue them since. They were acknowledged free and independent of Spain, by the peace of Munster, in 1648; and since that, commerce and toleration has made them a flourishing people.

Q. In what wars have they been engaged since?

A. Having declared themselves for the house of Austria, they have been several times at war with France, under Lewis XIV. in 1672, and

Lewis

Lewis XV. in 1740; and as allies of France, they have had a part in the last war between England and that kingdom.

Q. What became of the other nine provinces?

A. They revolted also, but were again put under the dominion of Spain by Alexander Farnese, duke of Parma, who succeeded the duke of Alva. They constituted part of the kingdom of Spain till the beginning of the present century; but Charles II. King of Spain, having declared Philip duke of Anjou, of the house of Bourbon, for his heir, the other powers entered into a confederacy against France and Spain, which caused a very long war. Philip of Anjou had no other means of preserving the crown of Spain than that of giving up all the Spanish possessions in the Low Countries to the house of Austria; and it was so decided by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.

Q. To whom do they belong now?

A. They have descended by regular succession to Joseph II. the late emperor of Germany; but discontented with his government, they took advantage of the absence of the emperor's troops, who were engaged against the Turks, and instigated by the clergy, revolted, took up arms, declared themselves independent in the month of November, 1789, and took possession of all the fortresses. The emperor, willing to avoid blood-

shed, offered them great advantages to bring them back to obedience, but none were accepted: in short, the emperor died in the beginning of 1790, and left them in a state of anarchy.— Leopold, the reigning emperor, on his accession to the throne, having also employed all means of pacification without success, marched an army of 30,000 men into the country, at the sight of which the rebels disappeared, and returned to their former obedience.

Q. Does he possess all the Low Countries?

A. Lewis XIV. of France made a conquest of one part, which was confirmed to him by the subsequent treaty; another part has been yielded to the United Provinces.

Q. How many states do these provinces form?

A. The whole seventeen provinces form two states, which are the Austrian Low Countries, commonly called Flanders, towards the south; and the republic of the United States, called Holland, towards the north.

LESSON XLVIII.

Of the AUSTRIAN LOW COUNTRIES.

Q. Of what nature is the soil of the Low Countries?

A. The soil of the Austrian Netherlands abounds in grain and forage, produces no wine, but they brew excellent beer. It is very populous; there is not a country in Europe where there are so many large cities, and most of them fortified, on such a small extent of land. The Roman Catholic religion is the only one professed. Their principal rivers are the Maese or Meuse, the Scheld or Escaut, and the Sambre, which falls into the Maese near Namur. They have also dug two canals for the conveniency of trade; one from Bruges to Ostend, and the other from Brussels to Antwerp.

Q. How many dukedoms have they?

A. Three; that of Brabant in the middle, and those of Luxembourg and Limbourg in the east.

Q. How many earldoms?

A. Four; that of Flanders in the west, and those of Artois, Hainault and Namur in the south.

Q. How many lordships?

A. Two;

A. Two; Mechlin and Antwerp, also called the marquisate of the empire, both surrounded by Brabant, towards the north.

Q. How is Brabant divided?

A. Into two parts; the Austrian Brabant south, and Dutch Brabant north. The capital of Austrian Brabant is Brussels, on the Sanné, a large and strong city, where resides the governor of the Low Countries; there is also Louvain, with a famous university.

Q. What is Dutch Brabant?

A. Holland possesses, in common, three strong places in that dutchy; Bois-le Duc, Breda, and Bergen-op-Zoom, with their territories.

Q. How is the dutchy of Luxembourg divided?

A. Into two parts; one belonging to the house of Austria, and the other to France; Austria has Luxembourg, built on a rock, which is the capital; France has Thionville on the Moselle, and Montmedi, both fortified cities. Near to this dutchy is that of Bouillon, which bears the the name of its capital, and the abbey of St. Hubert.

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy of Limbourg?

A. Limbourg is the capital; there is also Maestricht on the Maese, a large and strong city, enclosed in the bishoprick of Liege; it belongs to Holland.

Q. How

Q. How is Flanders divided ?

A. Into Austrian Flanders in the middle, French Flanders south, and Dutch Flanders north. In Austrian Flanders we find Ghent on the Scheld, which is the capital; the bishoprick of Bruges, and Ostend, a sea-port, well fortified; it held out a siege of three years, against the Spaniards, in 1601: there is also the city of Nieuport.

Q. What are the principal cities of French Flanders ?

A. Lille, the capital; a large and trading city, with a good citadel; and Douay, where there is an university and a parliament; Dunkirk and Gravelin, both sea-ports.

Q. What is remarked in Dutch Flanders ?

A. Ecluse, the capital; Hulst, and Sas-Van-Ghent; all three fortified cities, situated in a low and marshy ground.

Q. To whom does Artois belong ?

A. The county of Artois belongs entirely to France; it was given up to the French, at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713; the capital is Arras, a large city, with a citadel. There is also St. Omer's, a fortified city. Near Artois is the small province of Cambresis, belonging to France; the capital is Cambray, an archbishoprick, a large city, well known for its fine cambricks: there is also the little city of Cateau. Cambresis is famous

amous for a treaty of peace between France and Spain, in 1558.

Q. How is the earldom of Hainault divided?

A. Into Austrian Hainault north, and French Hainault south. Austrian Hainault has Ath, and Mons, the capital: French Hainault has Valenciennes, the capital; Landrecy and Maubeuge, all which are well fortified.

Q. Which is the capital of the earldom of Namur?

A. Namur, on the conflux of the Meuse and Sambre; defended by a strong castle: there is also Charleroi.

Q. What has France in that county?

A. Two strong places; Charlemont and Givet.

Q. Which is the capital of the marquisate of Antwerp?

A. Antwerp, on the Scheld; a large, ancient, and trading city, with a citadel.

Q. Which is the capital of the lordship of Mechlin?

A. The archbishoprick of Mechlin, where is held the sovereign council of the Low Countries, famous for its fine laces. It is remarkable, that the Dutch are in possession of several strong places, where they keep a garrison, though those same places belong to the house of Austria; these are Ypres and Menin in Flanders; and also Namur, the capital of the earldom of that name; they are called the barrier-towns, and were left to the

Dutch

Dutch by a treaty, to serve as a guard to their country ; but the emperor having lately demolished the fortifications, their garrisons are become useless.

LESSON XLIX.

Of the UNITED PROVINCES.

Q. Of what quality is the soil of those provinces ?

A. In general the soil is bad and marshy, the air is thick and unwholesome, and produces little except pasture ; cheese and butter are their greatest produce, nevertheless the country is populous ; their riches proceed chiefly from their commerce, and their linen and cloth manufactories ; it is one of the finest and most opulent countries in Europe.

Q. How are those States governed ?

A. Their government is an aristocracy mixed with a democracy : each province forms an independent republick ; but in virtue of their union the whole makes but one. The sovereignty resides in the assembly of the deputies of the nobles and those of all the provinces ; these deputies

compose the states-general, and they take the title of High Mightinesses.

Q. Where do they hold these assemblies?

A. At the Hague. This body of men has the principal direction of affairs, and gives audience to foreign ambassadors. Important affairs, such as peace and war, require an unanimity of votes; others are decided by a majority; each province has but one vote, though it should send several deputies.

Q. Who had they formerly for their chief?

A. At the beginning of their union, and for a long time after, they had a chief called stadtholder, who was governor, captain, and high admiral of all the forces of the republick. He was always a prince of the house of Nassau, because it was to a prince of that house that they were indebted for their liberty. The first stadtholder was William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, 1578. That place was afterwards filled by his sons Maurice and Frederic Henry, and by his grandson William II.; after which it was suppressed in 1660. Twelve years after it was re-established in favour of William III, afterwards King of England. In short, Charles Henry, prince of Orange, of the branch of Nassau Dietz, was chosen stadtholder in 1747, and that place made hereditary to his posterity of both sexes; after his demise his only son, William V. inherited that dignity, and is still in possession of it. Nevertheless,
very

very lately, in 1788, the Hollanders, who are a restless people, took it into their heads to change the government, and took up arms against the prince, abolished his place and titles, and obliged him to fly; they committed horrid cruelties against their opponents; but the present king of Prussia, his brother-in-law, marched a powerful army into the states, under the command of the duke of Brunswick, who re-established tranquillity, and the stadtholder is more firmly than ever fixed in that important dignity.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. The Protestant of the sect of Calvin; all other religions are authorised publicly; the Roman Catholic is only tolerated.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. Two great rivers, the Maese and the Rhine, but they have cut a great number of canals for the conveniency of interior trade. The Rhine separates into five branches, the Vahal, the Issel, the Vaert, the Leck, and the last, which preserves the name of the Rhine. The four first issue to the right and left, and the fifth is lost in the sands below Leyden, its mouth being choaked up.

Q. How many provinces are there?

A. As we observed before there are eight, but there are only seven in the assembly of states general. We find one dukedom, two earldoms, and four lordships. The dukedom is that of
Gueldres

Gueldres in the south, which, with the county of Zutphen, forms a province. The two earldoms are those of Holland and Zealand, situated on the sea coast, and towards the west. The four lordships are Utrecht in the south, Overysel in the east, Friesland and Groningen in the north.

LESSON L.

The UNITED PROVINCES continued.

Q. How is the duchy of Gueldres divided?

A. Into Austrian and Dutch Gueldres. In the Austrian division, Gueldres is the capital, and belongs to the king of Prussia; Ruremonde to the king of Hungary, and Venlo to the Dutch; all fortified towns.

Q. What cities do you meet with in Dutch Gueldres?

A. Nimeguen the capital, where a treaty was concluded in 1678. Arnheim a fortified city; and the earldom of Bure, which gives that title to the stadtholder's eldest son.

Q. Which

Q. Which is the capital of the county of Zutphen?

A. Zutphen is the capital; it is an ancient city, and has a magnificent temple.

Q. What do you observe of the earldom of Holland?

A. It is the most barren, and notwithstanding, the richest and most populous of all the provinces. The four elements are bad, and the sea would lay them under-water, were it not withheld by very strong dikes. The capital is Amsterdam, on the Amstel; it is a sea-port, and one of the largest, most populous, and trading cities in Europe, and partly built on piles. The most remarkable things are, the town-house, which is a vast and magnificent building; the port, which is extremely spacious; and the 'change, where merchants of all nations assemble. The streets are much admired for their neatness, in the middle of which there are canals, with a row of trees on each side. The other cities are Rotterdam, a sea-port on the Maese, a very trading city; Leyden, known for its university and cloth manufactory; Dordrecht, where a synod of Protestants was held in 1618; Delft, where are the tombs of the Nassau family; Haerlem and the Hague.

Q. What do you observe of the Hague?

A. The Hague is the finest borough in Europe, which rivals many large cities for grandeur

deur and magnificence; it is the ordinary residence of the prince stadtholder, of the states-general, and foreign ambassadors.

Q. What does the county of Zealand comprehend?

A. It comprehends several islands, which are situated near to each other: the largest of which is Valcheren. The capital is Middlebourg, in the island of Valcheren; it has also Flushing, a sea-port.

Q. Which is the capital of the lordship of Utrecht?

A. Utrecht on the Rhine, an university, formerly a bishoprick, a fine, large and populous city, famous for the union of the provinces in 1579, and for the congress for the general peace of Europe in 1713.

Q. Which is the capital of the lordship of Overijssel?

A. The capital is Deventer; there is Zwoll, a trading city; and Coeverden; a fortified town on the frontiers of Germany.

Q. What is remarkable of Friesland?

A. It is remarkable for its fine linen cloths, which are the best that are made, and also for its fine breed of horses. The capital is Leuwardin a large city; there is also the university of Franker.

Q. Which is the capital of Groningen?

A. Groningen

A. Groningen is the capital, and has a famous university.

Q. What is understood by the Generality?

A. Besides the provinces already described, the republick is in possession of the country ceded by Brabant, the dutchy of Luxembourg, and Flemish Guelderland,—which are called the Generality.

Q. What is further observed of the United States?

A. They have a very powerful East India Company, which has several possessions in Asia, and engrosses the whole of the spice trade. It was formed in 1602, by an association of several Dutch merchants, who sent ships to India by the Cape of Good Hope, which the Portuguese had discovered. Their profits were considerable, and by that the Dutch found themselves able to sustain war against the Spaniards, and make establishments in India. They have also other sources of riches, such as the herring-fishery on the coast of England, and the whale-fishery in the north.

LESSON LI.

Of FRANCE.

Q. WHAT is the situation of France?

A. France is bounded on the north by the English channel and the Low Countries; by Germany and Switzerland on the east; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains on the south, which separates it from Spain; and by the ocean on the west.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. It is a temperate country, and the soil produces all the necessaries of life:—It is looked upon as one of the best and most agreeable countries in Europe.

Q. In what consists their riches?

A. They consist chiefly in their natural productions, their manufactories and commerce, which is greatly favoured by the situation of the country between two seas.

Q. What name did France formerly bear?

A. It was formerly called Gaul.—The Franks, a people of Germany, made a conquest of it in the fifth century, and gave it their name. These people had chose Pharamond for their chief, who conquered only a part
of

of Gaul; — he was driven back beyond the Rhine by the Romans, to whom that country was then subject.

Q. When did the French monarchy begin?

A. It began at the time of the first association of the Franks under Pharamond, and the monarchy of France has subsisted without interruption since the year 420. The kings of France to this day have been composed of three families; the Merovingians, from Merowée, Pharamond's successor; the Carolingians, from the emperor Charlemagne; and the Capetians, who take their name from Hugh Capet.

Q. Who was the most renowned of the first race?

A. Clovis, fifth king of France; he conquered part of the Gauls, and was their first Christian king, in 496. Several of his successors were effeminate, and abandoned their power to the mayor, or first officer of their palace, and justly merited the appellation of *sllothful*, by which they are known in history. Pepin, one of those officers, caused Childeric III. the last king of the Merovingian race, to be imprisoned in a convent, and took possession of the crown in 752. He was succeeded by his son, the emperor Charlemagne, the most powerful prince of his time: he possessed France, Italy, and part of Germany and Spain.

Q. What happened after the death of Charlemagne?

A. Twenty-nine years after his demise, his vast dominions were divided; the emperor Charles the Big, who had united them all, was dethroned in 885, and the different governors formed as many independent sovereignties. After the death of Lewis V. surnamed the Lazy, the race of the Carlovingian family was extinct.

Q. Who reigned after?

A. The lords of the nation elected Hugh Capet king, but on condition that he should let them enjoy the provinces then in their possession, and that he would be content with receiving homage and allegiance from them.

Q. How many branches do you reckon in the Capetian race?

A. Three; the direct branch, the Valois, and the Bourbons. They have reigned successively, and the latter are now on the throne.

Q. Who were the most renowned of the direct branch?

A. Philip Augustus, who in 1190 united several provinces. Lewis IX. called St. Lewis, who took part in the Crusades, and died at Tunis in 1270; and Charles le Bel, last king of that branch.

Q. What happened after Charles le Bel?

A. He left only a daughter: the states in 1328, gave the crown to Philip de Valois, the first

first of that branch : but Edward king of England, nephew to Charles, disputed him the crown, which caused a long war.

Q. What kings are remarkable in the branch of Valois ?

A. Charles VII. who obliged the English to abandon the kingdom in 1431. Lewis XII. surnamed the Father of the people. Francis I. the restorer of sciences in France ; and Henry III. who was assassinated by a Jacobine friar, in 1589.

Q. Who was the successor of Henry III. ?

A. Henry IV. his nearest relation of the male line, who was king of Navarre, in the right of his mother. This prince was the greatest king that France can boast of, and the founder of the branch of Bourbon, which has already given four kings. He was obliged to conquer his kingdom inch by inch ; a powerful confederacy opposed him : he was assassinated by Francis Ravallac in 1610. After him his son Lewis XIII. ascended the throne. His prime minister, the Cardinal de Richelieu, greatly encreased the power of the king, humbled the house of Austria, and the great men of his kingdom.

Q. Who succeeded him ?

A. Lewis XIV. surnamed the Great, in 1643. His reign was long and fortunate, accompanied by various remarkable events ; the principal

cipal of which were the union of all Alsace, the establishing his grandson, Philip V. on the throne of Spain, the conquest of Franche Comté and part of the Low Countries, and the different wars he sustained against several foreign powers, the most considerable of which was ended by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

Q. Who was his successor?

A. Lewis XV. surnamed the Well Beloved, great-grandson to Lewis XIV. his father and grandfather being both dead; by the peace of Vienna in 1730, he added Lorraine to France, and the Island of Corfica, by a treaty with the republick of Genoa; he died in 1775; the dauphin, son of Lewis XV. being dead, his grandson, Lewis XVI. now occupies the throne.

LESSON LI.

FRANCE *continued.*

Q. How is France governed?

A. France is an absolute monarchy: formerly the king's authority was limited by the states of the nation; but it is long since they were assembled.

sembled*. The crown is hereditary, but in the male line only; the females are excluded by virtue of the Salic law: the king has the title of the Most Christian King and eldest Son of the Church; the presumptive heir is called Dauphin, and carries the arms of that province.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The established religion is the Roman Catholic; there are a great number of Protestants, but they have not the free exercise of their religion.

Q. At what period was the reformation established in France?

A. In 1520, under Francis I. and great progress was made in it; but they were often persecuted, which obliged them to take up arms in order to confirm their liberty of conscience, which had been gaurantied by several treaties. The Catholics having induced all the chiefs of the

* We are here obliged to give an account of the government of France, such as it was till about the month of July, 1789: So early as the latter end of 1788, the king had summonsed the states-general; who, after various debates on the formalities and the qualities of the representatives, assembled, and have since overturned the fundamental laws of the constitution; have suffered the greatest atrocities in the people; divested the king of all his authority, and made themselves masters of the supreme power: they say they are modelling a new constitution; but upon what foundation, none but themselves can decide: therefore, as we cannot know where their excesses will end, it is impossible to give a just idea of their operations.

Protestants to come to Paris in 1572, very few of them escaped with their lives in the horrid massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Q. What did Henry IV. for them?

A. In 1598 he issued the famous edict of Nantes, which authorised them in the free exercise of their religion, but that edict was often violated under Lewis XIII. and was finally abrogated by Lewis XIV. in 1685: from that moment the Protestants finding themselves persecuted over all the kingdom, sought for refuge in foreign countries; by which France saw its riches and its industrious inhabitants transplanted to England, Germany, Holland, and Switzerland.

Q. Which are the principal rivers of France?

A. The Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Rhone. The Seine runs from east to west, and enters the ocean on the coast of Normandy; the Loire crosses the Orleanois, and falls into the ocean below Nantes in Brittany; the Garonne rises in the Pyrenees, crosses Guienne, and discharges itself also into the ocean; the Rhone rises in the Valais in Switzerland, runs south, and enters the Mediterranean on the coast of Provence.

Q. How is France divided?

A. Into thirty-one provinces, which have their separate governors: these governments are distinguished by the name of great and small, relatively to their extent; they reckon fourteen great governments; four of which are in the south,
four

four in the east, four in the north, and two in the west; they are found on the maps in the following order.—The four great governments in the north are, French Flanders, Picardy, the isle of France and Champagne.—The four in the east are, Lorraine, Alsace, Burgundy and Franche Comté.—The two in the west are, Normandy and Brittany.—The four in the south are, Guienne, Languedoc, Provence and Dauphiny.

Q. How many small governments are there?

A. There are seventeen; fourteen of which are in the middle, and three in the south of the kingdom.

Q. How many towards the west?

A. Out of the fourteen, there are five towards the west; if we reckon them on the same line from north to south, they are the Maine, Anjou, Poitou, Aunis and Saintonge.

Q. How many in the middle?

A. There are five in the middle of the others; Orleanois, Berry, Touraine, La Marche and Limoufin: following the same direction towards the east, you find the Nivernois, the Bourbonnois, the Lyonnois and Auvergne; the three in the south are Bearn, Foix and Roussillon.

Q. What do you observe on these governments?

A. There are some of them whose contributions are regulated by the deputies of the province; for which reason they are called pays d'etats, or state countries.

Q. What other governments are there?

A. There are besides those already mentioned, eight, which have each their particular governor; they are Paris, Metz, Toul, Verdun, Havre de Grace, Boulogne, Sedan and Saumur; we shall speak of them hereafter.

LESSON LIII.

FRANCE *continued.*

FRENCH FLANDERS, PICARDY, *the* ISLE of FRANCE,
and CHAMPAGNE.

Q. WHAT does French Flanders contain?

A. It comprehends all the French possessions in the Low Countries, except Artois; that is to say, a part of Flanders, Hainault and Cambresis.

Q. How did France acquire these provinces?

A. Lewis XIV. conquered them one after another, as being the property of his queen, Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. king of Spain; and they were ceded to him by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713.

Q. What is the government of Picardy.

A. It

A. It is composed of the province of Picardy proper, which is a good corn country; and of the county of Artois: Picardy is divided into upper in the east, and lower in the west.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. The principal rivers are the Somme and the Oise, which are lost in the Seine; but of late they have cut a canal in Upper Picardy, to join the Somme to the Scheld; it commences near the city of St. Quintin.

Q. What cities are there in Upper Picardy?

A. The bishoprick of Amiens, on the Somme, the capital of all the province; and St. Quintin, known for its cambricks.

Q. What cities in the lower part?

A. Abbeville, where there is a renowned cloth manufactory; Boulogne, a sea-port and a bishoprick; Calais, a fortified sea-port, on the narrowest part of the channel.

Q. Where is the Isle of France situated?

A. It is situated east of Normandy; it is so called, because it comprehends all the country between the Seine, the Marne, the Aisne and the Oise; this province is of no great produce, most of it being taken up by villas, parks and gardens.

Q. Which is the capital of the Isle of France?

A. The capital of that, and all France, is Paris, on the river Seine; it is an archbishoprick, has an university and a parliament; it is one of the largest, most populous and beautiful cities in Europe.

Europe: the principal edifices are the Louvre and the Thuilleries, which is a royal palace; the cathedral church of Notre Dame; the Bastille*; the Pont Neuf, or New Bridge, and several squares or public places, adorned with statues, and surrounded by regular buildings.

Q. What is met with near Paris?

A. We find St. Denis, a small city, with a royal abbey; this is the burial-place of their kings: the abbey contains many curiosities, which may be seen. There are also near Paris many royal palaces, the most remarkable of which are Fontainebleau and Versailles, the ordinary residence of the king.

Q. Which are the other cities of that province?

A. The most capital are what they call the four bishopricks; Soissons, Laon, Noyon, where Calvin was born, and Beauvais, known for its manufactory of tapestry.

Q. What does the government of Champagne contain?

A. It contains the province of that name, and that part of Brie called Brie Champagnoise, both east of the Isle of France.

Q. What does Champagne produce?

A. It has very extensive plains, which produce very little corn, but abundance of excellent wine; it was formerly subject to its own counts, who were very powerful; it was united to the crown

* Demolished by the rabble in August, 1789.

in 1284, by the marriage of Jane, queen of Navarre and countess of Champagne, with Philip le Bel, king of France.

Q. How is that province divided?

A. Into Upper Champagne in the north, and Lower in the south; the principal cities are Troyes the capital, which is a bishoprick; and two archbishopricks, Rheims towards the north, and Sens towards the south; there are besides two other bishopricks, Chalons and Langres, known for its cutlery ware; the capital of Brie Champagnoise is the bishoprick of Meaux.

Q. What do you observe of the city of Rheims?

A. The archbishop of Rheims is the first duke and ecclesiastical peer of the kingdom; he has the privilege of anointing and crowning the kings; the front of the cathedral is much admired; the ceremony of anointing the kings is as ancient as Clovis, the first Christian king of France, who was anointed with the oil of the holy phial, said to have been brought from Heaven. On the north of Champagne, we find the principality of Sedan, a sovereignty which formerly belonged to the family of Bouillon; the capital is Sedan, a fortified town, known for the fine cloth which is manufactured there.

LESSON LIV.

FRANCE *continued.*

LORRAINE, ALSACE *and* BURGUNDY.

Q. What is the situation of Lorraine?

A. It is situated between France and Germany, and is bordered on the north by the Low Countries.

Q. Is it a good country?

A. Yes; it is a populous country; the soil produces abundantly all the necessaries of life; they have some iron mines, and springs of salt water, which increase the revenue: it formerly constituted a part of the ancient kingdom of Austrasia, and their sovereigns were the last kings of the Carlovingian race: it was afterwards in the possession of the Counts of Alsace, the first of whom was called Gerrard, and it is from him that the house of Lorraine takes its rise; his posterity divided into two branches; the eldest formed the house of the dukes of Lorraine, and the youngest established itself in France, where, for a time, it was very powerful. It has often been the custom of the dukes of Lorraine to side with the house of Austria in its wars against the Bourbons, for which reason Lorraine has more than
once

once been taken by the French. Henry II. of France, in 1552, took possession of the three bishopricks of Metz, Toul and Verdun, which are encompassed by Lorraine,—and his successors have retained them ever since. Lorraine was after that invaded by Lewis XIII. in 1630; he compelled Charles IV. the then reigning duke, to surrender all the fortified places of his dutchy; but they were again given up to him by the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659.

Q. What happened under Lewis XIV.?

A. The duke Leopold was stripped by him of all his possessions in 1669, which he could not recover till the peace of Ryswick, in 1697; since that Lorraine was ceded by the treaty of Vienna, in 1736, to Stanislaus, king of Poland, on condition that, at his demise, it should return to France, which occurred in 1766. The grand dutchy of Tuscany was given in exchange to the duke of Lorraine,—and the emperor Francis I. chief of that house, took possession of it in 1737.

Q. What religion is professed in Lorraine?

A. The Roman Catholic is the only one allowed; there was formerly a great number of Protestants, and there are still many Jews.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. The principal rivers are the Maese, which runs north, and crosses the Low Countries,—and the Moselle, which discharges itself into the Rhine.

Q. How is Lorraine divided?

O

A. Into

A. Into three principal parts; Lorraine proper, the dutchy of Bar, and the three bishopricks. Nancy, a fortified and trading city, is the capital; it has a fine square, in the center of which is the statue of Lewis XV.

Q. What is further to be remarked in Lorraine?

A. The city of Luneville, the residence of the ancient dukes; Saar Lewis, in the east; Phalsbourg and Plombieres, known for its mineral waters; all fortified cities.

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy of Bar?

A. Bar-le-Duc; there is also Pont-a-Mousson, an university.

Q. What do you remark of the three bishopricks?

A. The cities of Metz, Toul and Verdun, were formerly imperial cities; the largest is Metz, which has a parliament and a good citadel.

Q. Where is Alsace situated?

A. East of Lorraine; it extends along the left shore of the Rhine, which bounds it north and south; this country abounds in corn and wine; France conquered the greatest part of it under Lewis XIII. and the remainder under Lewis XIV.; it was ceded to him by the treaty of Munster, and also by that of Ryswick, in 1697. Alsace is divided into upper and lower, the first south, and the other north; we may add to that a part

of

of Sundgau, which is near the frontiers of Switzerland.

Q. What is their religion?

A. One part are Catholics and the other Protestants; the latter, by their submission to France, gained the free exercise of their religion; there are a great number of Jews in that province.

Q. Which is the capital of the whole province?

A. Strasbourg, a bishoprick in Lower Alsace, a well-fortified and trading city; the citadel is greatly noticed, and also the steeple of the cathedral for its great elevation.

Q. What cities are there in Upper Alsace?

A. The most considerable are Colmar and Neuf-Brisac; it is in the first where resides the sovereign council of the province.

Q. What is met with in the lower?

A. There you will find Landau, Haguenau, and Fort Lewis on the Rhine; all which are well fortified.

Q. Which is the capital of Sundgau?

A. Befort; besides which there is Huningen, a fortress on the Rhine, near the city of Basle or Basil.

Q. Where is Burgundy situated?

A. The dutchy of Burgundy, which constitutes the government of that name, is situated in the east of the kingdom, and south of Champagne; its greatest produce is wine; it is one of the pays d'etats, or state countries. Charles the

Bold was the last duke of Burgundy,—he had no heirs but one daughter. Lewis XI. invaded the dutchy in 1477, as a fœdal tenure reverfible to the crown.

Q. Which is the capital of Burgundy?

A. Dijon, a bishopricks, a large and well-built city, and has a parliament; there are also four bishopricks, Auxerre, towards the north; Autun, an ancient city; Chalons, on the Saone, the only remarkable river; and Macon, towards the south. Beaune and Nuis, are two small cities where the best wine is made. Towards the south there are three small counties; Bresse, the capital of which is Bourg; Bugey, whose capital is Bellay, a bishopricks; and the principality of Dombes, the capital of which is Trevoux.

Q. To whom do these three counties belong?

A. They have been united to the government of Burgundy;—the two first belonged to Savoy, and were exchanged, in 1601, for the marquifate of Saluces.

LESSON LV.

FRANCE *continued.*

FRANCHE-COMPTÉ, NORMANDY and BRITANNY.

Q. What is the situation of Franche-Comté?

A. Franche-

A. Franche-Compté, called also the county of Burgundy, stands east of the dutchy, and produces corn and wine.

Q. How did France acquire it?

A. Lewis XIV. conquered that province of the Spaniards, and it was confirmed to France by the peace of Nimeguen, in 1678.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. The principal rivers are the Saone, which rises there; and the Doux, which falls into the Saone.

Q. Which is the capital of Franche-Compté?

A. Besançon on the Doux, is the capital of all the province; it is an archbishoprick, and has a parliament; it is an ancient, trading, and well-built city,—has a strong citadel. The other remarkable cities are Dole, its ancient capital, on the Doux; Salins, which takes its name from its springs of salt waters; and the abbey of St. Claude, which of late has been made a bishoprick. In the east there is the county of Montbeliard, whose capital bears the same name, and belongs to the duke of Wirtemberg.

Q. From whence proceeds the name of Normandy?

A. From a people originally from the north, known for pirates and free-booters, to whom Charles the Simple was obliged to abandon that province in 912. After having been in the possession of the kings of England since William the

Conqueror, it was again united to the crown under the reign of Philip Augustus, who deprived King John of it in 1203.

Q. What does that country produce?

A. It is a very fruitful soil, produces every thing except wine,—but they make excellent cyder; the people are industrious, and carry on a great trade.

Q. How is the country divided?

A. Into Upper and Lower Normandy; the first east, and the second west: the capital of Upper Normandy is Rouen on the Seine; it is an archbishoprick, and has its parliament; it is one of the largest and most trading cities in the kingdom. They have a bridge upon boats, which raises and lowers in proportion to the quantity of water in the river, and which opens with the greatest ease for the passage of vessels of burthen. They have also Dieppe and Havre-de-Grace, both sea-ports; the latter is situated at the mouth of the Seine, and has a good citadel.

Q. Which is the capital of Lower Normandy?

A. Caen, on the Orne, a large and well-built city, which has a famous university: there is also Mount St. Michael, a city, and an abbey, built on a rock in the sea, from whence they easily discern the islands of Jersey and Guernsey, belonging to the English.

Q. What is Brittany?

A. Brittany

A. Brittany is a large province, situated south of Normandy; it extends, in the form of a peninsula, along the coasts of the ocean; it is a state country, abounding in pasture, and they make excellent butter; it produces hemp; they trade largely in threads and linen cloth.

Q. How came France in possession of that province?

A. France acquired it by the marriage of Ann, daughter and heiress of Francis, last duke of that province, with Charles VIII. king of France, and afterwards with Lewis XII. his successor.

Q. How is Brittany divided?

A. Into Upper in the east, and Lower in the west.

Q. Which is its capital?

A. The capital of the Upper is Rennes, a bishoprick and parliament city, on the Villaine; there is also Nantz on the Loire, a trading city and a bishoprick; and three sea-ports,—Brest, in the east; St. Malo's, in the north; and Port-Louis, in the south: Brest is the best port in all France, and the naval arsenal. Near Port Louis is L'Orient, a small city, famous for its store-houses, and also for the yearly sale of the East India Company's goods. On the coast of Brittany is the island of Belle-Isle; it is a fruitful soil, surrounded by rocks, and defended by a good citadel.

LESSON LVL

FRANCE *continued.*

Of GUIENNE and LANGUEDOC.

Q. WHAT does the government of Languedoc comprehend?

A. The province of that name is the largest in the kingdom; it extends from the coasts of the ocean to the Pyrenean mountains: it a fruitful country; the greatest produce is wine, for which there is a considerable trade. It had formerly its particular sovereigns, who had the title of dukes of Aquitaine. In 1150 it fell to the English, by the marriage of Eleanora, daughter to the last duke, with Henry II. king of England. Charles VII. recovered it in 1451, when he entirely expelled the English from France, after a long and bloody war; since that it has never been separated from the crown.

Q. What rivers have they in Guienne?

A. The principal are the Garonne, the Dordogne, which falls into the Garonne, and the Adour, which runs towards the south.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Bourdeaux is the capital of all Guienne, on the Garonne; it is an archbishoprick, has its parliament, and is a large, rich, and great trading city.

Q. How is Bayonne divided?

A. It is divided into Gascony proper, almost all on the north of the Garonne; and Gascony, on the
south

south of that river. Guienne proper contains six counties, two on the south, and four on the north of the Garonne; the two on the south are, the Bordelois proper, the capital Bourdeaux; and the Bazadois, capital Bazas: the four on the north are, the Agenois, capital Agen; the Perigord, capital Perigueux; the Quercy, capital Cahors; and the Rouergue, capital Rodez.

Q. How is Gascony divided?

A. Gascony is a less fruitful country, divided into several small provinces, the chief of which are, Armagnac, the capital; Auch, an archbishoprick; the Condomois, capital Condom; and the country of the Basques, capital Bayonne, a trading city, and a seaport, on the Adour.

Q. What is Languedoc?

A. It is a large province, east of Guienne, and the most agreeable country of the kingdom; they have a great trade, and furnish other countries with muscadine wine, sweet oil, and various kinds of fruits: it is a state country. This country had formerly its own sovereigns, who had the title of counts of Thoulouse; the last, named Raymond, leaving but one daughter, who died in her infancy, Philip the Bold united that province to the crown, in 1361.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. The Garonne waters the western part of the country; and, in 1681, under Lewis XIV. a canal was contrived to join the Mediterranean to the

the ocean, which has cost immense sums; it is sixty-four leagues long, beginning at the Port-Cette, and joining the Garonne above Thoulouse.

Q. What contains the government of Languedoc?

A. It comprehends Languedoc proper, which is divided into upper, in the west, and lower in the east, and the Cevennes; the capital of all the province is Thoulouse, on the Garonne; it is an archbishoprick, has its parliament, and is one of the largest and finest cities in France. There are also two archbishopricks, two bishopricks, and two cities of less note; the two archbishopricks are Alby and Narbonne, a very ancient city, founded by the Romans; the two bishopricks are, Montpellier, famous for its medicinal school, and Nismes, where are seen many antiquities, such as the temple of Diana, and an amphitheatre, almost entire. Near this city is also seen the famous bridge, called le Pont du Guard, contrived by the Romans for an aqueduct; it has three stories, and joins two mountains. The two other cities are, le Pont du St. Esprit, where is a bridge, with twenty-six arches, over the Rhone; and Beaucaire, where are held the greatest fairs in Europe.

Q. What are the Cevennes?

A. They are properly only mountains, situated north of lower Languedoc; they abound in game and

and chesnuts. The Cevennes are divided into three small countries, which are, the Vivarais, the capital Viviers; the Velay, capital Puy; and the Gevaudan, capital Mende.

LESSON LVII.

FRANCE *continued.*

Of PROVENCE and DAUPHINE.

Q. WHERE is Provence situated?

A. It stands east of Languedoc: Its production is the olive, the oil of which is in high estimation: —It affords very little corn, but has excellent wine. For a long time the counts of Provence were their sovereigns, till Charles d'Anjou, the last of them, instituted for his heir Lewis XI. king of France.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. The largest are the Rhone, and the Durance, which falls into the Rhone.

Q. Which is the capital of Provence?

A. The capital is Aix, an archbishoprick; it has its parliament, and is an ancient and well-built city:

city: the other large cities are, the archbishoprick of Arles, on the Rhone, a very ancient city; and three sea-ports, Marseilles, Toulon, and Antibes.

Q. What do you observe of Marseilles?

A. That it is a rich city and a bishoprick:—It is there that the Levant-trade is chiefly carried on; and there the gallies are generally kept.

Q. What of Toulon?

A. It is the best port of France; it is there they fit out their ships of war for the Mediterranean. We must also observe two small countries surrounded by Provence; they are, the earldom of Venaissin, and the principality of Orange. The Venaissin is a small county belonging to the pope; its capital is Avignon on the Rhone, an archbishoprick, and a large trading city.

Q. How came the pope to be in possession of it?

A. Philip the Bold had given the enjoyment of it to pope Gregory X. and, in 1547, his successors bought the city of Avignon of Jane Queen of Naples: in 1768 Lewis XV. united the whole of the county to the crown of France, but returned it to the Holy See*.

Q. What is the principality of Orange?

A. It is from this principality that the Nassau family take their title; it has belonged to France since the peace of Utrecht: its capital is Orange,

* The National Assembly have recently seized it as the property of the nation,

a bishoprick, where the Protestants had formerly an academy.

Q. How is Dauphiné situated?

A. Dauphiné, the last of the grand governments of France, is situated north of Provence: its revenue proceeds from the sale of their wine and oil. Their former sovereigns called themselves Dauphins of Viennois; Humbert II. the last of them, abandoned it to Philip de Valois, king of France, in 1349; since then the king's eldest son takes the title and arms of Dauphiné.

Q. What rivers are there?

A. The Rhone serves as a boundary to the country on the west; and the Isere crosses it, and afterwards falls into the Rhone.

Q. How is this province divided?

A. It is divided into Upper Dauphiné, a mountainous country, towards the east; and into Lower Dauphiné, which extends along the Rhone on the west: the capital is Grenoble on the Isere; it is a bishoprick, and a parliament city:—Near it is the great convent of Carthusian friars: there are besides this, two bishopricks; Embrun, in the east; and Vienne, on the Rhone; it is an ancient city: Valence, a bishoprick, also on the Rhone; and Briançon, a fortified place, on the frontiers of Piedmont.

LESSON LVIII.

FRANCE continued.

Of the Seventeen inferior Governments of FRANCE.

Q. REMIND me of the five small governments in the west?

A. Those five governments are, the Maine, where they feed the best poultry; Anjou, which gives good flates; Poitou, a fruitful country; the country of Aunis, where they make large quantities of salt; and Saintonge, known for its trade in brandy.

The capital of the Maine is Mons, a bishoprick: the famous abbey de la Trappe is still seen there.

The capital of Anjou is Angers, a bishoprick; there is also Saumur on the Loire, where was formerly the famous academy of the Protestants.

The capital of Poitou is Poitiers, on the Clain; a large city, but not populous.

The capital of the country of Aunis is La Rochelle, a bishoprick, a sea-port, and a trading city. It is known for the famous siege which the Protestants sustained in it, under Lewis XIII. in 1628; besides which, we find Rochefort, a sea-port and good fortification, with the isles of Rhé and Oleron,

Oleron, near the coast, which produce salt and wine.

The capital of the government of Saintonge, contains Saintonge proper, in the west: the capital is Saintes, a bishoprick; and the Angoumois in the east, the capital of which is Angoulême, also a bishoprick.

2. Which are the five governments in the middle?

A. The middle governments are, the Orleanois, a fertile province; Touraine, known for its fruits; Berry, known for its wool; La Marche, where there are good pasture lands; and the Limousin, which gives a vast quantity of chefnuts.

The capital of Orleanois is Orleans, on the Loire; it is a bishoprick, and a large, populous and trading city. It was besieged by the English in the reign of Charles VII. and delivered in 1429, by Jane d'Arc, surnamed the Maid of Orleans. In this government is also the Beauce, the capital of which is Chartres, a bishoprick; the Blaisois, the capital Blois, a bishoprick; and the Gatinois, the capital Montargis. There are also two canals, Orleans and Briare, which join the Loire and the Seine, and facilitate the interior trade.

The capital of Touraine is Tour, an archbishoprick, where they weave fine silks.

The capital of Berry is Bourges, also an archbishoprick. There is the city of Sancere towards the

the north. The capital of La Marche is Gueret; and that of Limoufin is Limoges.

Q. Which are the four governments in the east?

A. They are, first, Nivernois, a country which abounds in glass-work and mines of iron. Second, the Bourbonnois, which gives its name to the reigning branch. Third, the Lyonnois, known for its rich stuffs; and fourth, Auvergne, a mountainous country, but abundant in pasture lands.

The capital of Nivernois is Nevers, a bishoprick on the Loire.

The capital of Bourbonnois is Moulins, known for its cutlery. There is also Bourbon and Vichy, famous for their mineral waters.

The government of Lyonnois comprehends the Lyonnois proper, the capital of which is Lyons; le Forz, capital St. Etienne; and the Beaujolois, capital Ville Franche. Lyons is an archbishoprick, on the confluence of the Rhone and Saone: it is one of the finest cities in the kingdom; they have an extensive trade, particularly for their silks and gold lace.

The capital of Auvergne is Clermont, a bishoprick, a large and populous city.

Q. Which are the three governments in the south?

A. They are, the Bearn, near Guienne; the small county of Foix; and the Roussillon, a wine country; the two last are south of Languedoc.

Q. What is contained in Bearn?

A. That government comprehends Bearn proper, the capital of which is Pau, a parliament city; and Lower Navarre, the capital Saint-Jean-pied-de-Port.

Q. What is Lower Navarre?

A. It is that part of the kingdom of Navarre which lies north of the Pyrenees:—This province, and that of Bearn, belonged to Henry IV. when he came to the crown of France, in 1589. He was the first who took the title of king of France and Navarre.

Q. Which is the capital of Foix?

A. Foix is the capital:—There is also the bishoprick of Pamiers. The capital of Roussillon is Perpignan, a bishoprick. There is also Mont Louis; both these are fortified.

Q. How did France acquire that province?

A. By the treaty of Pyrenees in 1659, it was decided that those mountains should serve as boundaries between the kingdoms of France and Spain.

LESSON LIX.

Of PORTUGAL.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Portugal ?

A. It is the most western situation of Europe, being bounded north and east by Spain, and on the other two sides by the ocean. It is in a warm climate, the air is pure, and the soil produces chiefly wine and fruits :—They have copper and iron mines, and a fine breed of horses. This country, though not extensive, is rich by their trade with America, for which they are advantageously situated.

Q. On whom did that kingdom formerly depend ?

A. For a long time it depended on Spain, and only began to form a separate state in the eleventh century.

Q. How came it to be separated ?

A. Alphonso VI. king of Castille, having conquered a part of Portugal from the Moors, gave it in 1089 to his son-in-law, Henry of Burgundy, of the royal family of France. His successors made other conquests, extended their domain, and in 1139, entirely freed themselves of their dependence on the king of Castille, to whom, till then, they had been in a manner subject.

Q. What

Q. What happened after that?

A. Sebastian, the sixteenth king of Portugal since Henry, having been killed in 1578, in a battle against the Moors, and leaving no issue, Philip II. king of Spain, invaded his states, and remained in possession of them for sixty years; but was drove out of them by another revolution. The Portuguese entered into a general conspiracy against the Spaniards, expelled them from the country, and crowned John, duke of Braganza, who was a descendant of their former kings.

Q. What is to be observed of that conspiracy?

A. This plot was kept a secret for a whole year; though more than two hundred persons were in the secret. It proceeded from the hatred which the Portuguese bore to the Spaniards for their tyrannic usage.

Q. How did the new king conduct himself?

A. He took the name of John IV. and aided by France and England, resisted all the forces of Spain, who was obliged to give up all pretensions on that country.

Q. Who succeeded him?

A. His eldest son, Alphonso, who having been dethroned on account of his incapacity, left the crown to his younger brother, Peter II.

Q. Who reigns at present?

P 2

A. Joseph

A. Joseph Emanuel, son of John V. dying in 1780, and leaving only one daughter, that princess ascended the throne by the name of Maria I. and has married Peter III. her uncle, prince of Portugal.

Q. What events have happened in Portugal?

A. It suffered considerably in 1755, by earthquakes, which entirely destroyed the capital, and several large cities in the kingdom.

Q. What other events do you remark?

A. The king of Portugal was the first who expelled the Jesuits from his dominions, and took their property. His example has been followed by several other Catholic states.

Q. How is Portugal governed?

A. Monarchically; the crown is hereditary, even to the king's natural children, in default of legitimate heirs.

Q. What title does the king's eldest son bear?

A. He is called prince of Brasil, from an American country belonging to Portugal.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The only authorized religion is the Roman Catholic. There are, nevertheless, a great number of Jews, who are tolerated on account of trade, though they have an established inquisition.

Q. What is the inquisition?

A. It

A. It is a tribunal introduced in some Catholic countries, to judge and punish those who are looked upon as heretics or forcerers. The inquisition in Portugal is not so formidable since John V. declared himself the chief of that tribunal; and that the Dominican friars are obliged to follow the ordinary regulations for criminal processes.

Q. What are their rivers?

A. Their most capital rivers are, the Douro and the Minho, in the north; the Tagus in the middle, and the Gardiana in the south: they all discharge themselves in the ocean.

LESSON LX.

PORTUGAL *continued.*

Q. How is Portugal divided?

A. It is divided into six provinces, which lay almost on the same line from north to south.

Q. What are those provinces?

A. That between the Douro and the Minho; that of Tra-los-Montes, east of the first; the Beira,

the Estramadura, the Alentejo, and the kingdom of the Algarva.

Q. Which is the province between the Douro and Minho?

A. That province takes the name of the two rivers between which it is situated; it is a fruitful country, gives excellent wine and pasture.—The capital is Braga, an archbishoprick, a large and ancient city. Its archbishop is primate of the kingdom; he has the prerogative of crowning the kings, and is lord temporal of the city. The other cities are, Oporto, a bishoprick, a seaport on the Douro, where they carry on a great trade, chiefly in wine; and Viana, a well-built and fortified city, near the mouth of the river Lima.

Q. What is Tra-los-Montes?

A. That province is thus named on account of its situation beyond the mountains. It is a dry soil, produces little besides fruit. Its capital is Miranda, a bishoprick and fortified place on the frontiers of Spain. There is also Braganza, capital of a dutchy, which gives its name to a branch of the present reigning family.

Q. What do you observe of Biera?

A. It is the largest province of Portugal; it is divided into Upper in the north, and Lower in the south: it produces wine and oil. Its capital is Coimbre, a bishoprick, on the Mondego:—It has the first university in the kingdom. There

is

is also the bishoprick of Lamego ; and Viseo, a fortified place.

Q. How is Estramadura divided ?

A. Formerly Estramadura belonged entirely to Portugal, but now part of it is in the possession of Spain. This province is the most fruitful of all the kingdom ; it abounds in oranges and lemons, and they make great quantities of salt on the shore. Lisbon, on the Tagus, is the capital of that province and of all the kingdom ; the archbishop has the title of patriarch. Before the last earthquakes, Lisbon was one of the largest, richest, and most trading cities in Europe. Its port is formed by the Tagus ; it is sure, vast, and defended by several forts. In Estramadura we must also observe Leira, a bishoprick, and fortified city ; Setubal, a sea-port ; Santarem, on the Tagus, with a good citadel ; and the abbey of Belem, near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are interred.

Q. Which is the capital of the Alentejo ?

A. The capital of Alentejo is Evora, an archbishoprick ;—There is also Elvas and Portalegro, bishopricks and fortified places, on the frontiers of Spain.

Q. What is Algarva ?

A. That province was called a kingdom when in possession of the Moors ; it was formerly more extensive than at present. Its capital is Tavira, a sea-port. There are also Lagos and Faro, fortified places ; and Cape St. Vincent.

LESSON LXI.

Of SPAIN.

Q. What is the situation of Spain?

A. Spain is situated in the west of Europe, towards the south; it is bounded on the north by the ocean, and the Pyrenean mountains; east and south by the Mediterranean; and by Portugal on the west. It is a hot climate, but the air is pure; in some places the soil is fruitful, but in others dry and sandy:—it produces but little corn; but wines and fruits are abundant and excellent. The country would produce much more, if it was peopled proportionably to its extent, and if the inhabitants were more laborious: this want of population is produced by the emigration of a great number of Spaniards to America; and that in general the women are not productive.

Q. What does Spain produce?

A. Excellent wines, horses much esteemed, oil, silk, and the finest wool in Europe.

Q. Who were the people who first frequented that country?

A. The Phenicians first traded with them, and after them the Carthaginians, who conquered the southern part, and built the city of Carthage.

gena. The Romans expelled the Carthaginians in the second Punic war, and conquered the remainder of this vast country, which was made a province of Rome in the reign of Augustus. Spain remained a part of the Roman empire, till the fifth century, when the Visigoths, the Alans, and the Vandals, people from the north, made a descent, and after invading the whole country, established a monarchy, which subsisted more than three hundred years.

Q. What brought it to an end?

A. Count Julian, prime minister to Roderic, last king of the Visigoths, having received an affront from his master, in order to revenge himself, called in the Moors and Saracens, who, in a short time, made themselves masters of the kingdom. These people were commanded by the Caliph of Damascus, who was master of a part of Asia, and of the western coast of Africa; he divided Spain into several provinces, and established governors in them: but the Caliph being at a great distance, each governor thought of making himself independent, and master of the whole kingdom, which gave rise to a continuity of civil wars among them.

Q. What became of the Christians during these events?

A. From the time of the first invasion of the Moors, they had retired into the mountains of Asturias; but taking advantage of those divisions, fortified

fortified their party little by little, under Pelagus their king; his successors found means to force the Moors out of different provinces; they also formed several small kingdoms, which by alliances were afterwards reduced to two. These two kingdoms were those of Castille and Arragon which, in 1474, were united into one, by the marriage of Ferdinand the V. king of Arragon, with Isabella, heiress of Castille.

Q. What became of the Moors?

A. They lost under that reign, in 1482, the kingdom of Granada, the only remaining province of Spain, in their possession.

Q. Who reigned after Ferdinand?

A. He left but one daughter, who married Philip, archduke of Austria; and brought him for her dowry the monarchy of Spain. He was crowned king in 1505, by the name of Philip I.

Q. Who succeeded him?

A. His son Charles V. who having been elected emperor in 1519, was the most powerful prince of the age. A few years before his death, he abandoned the monarchy of Spain to his son Philip II. to which was then united the Low Countries, part of Italy, and their conquests in America.

Q. Who was the last king of the house of Austria?

A. Charles II. who having no issue, instituted for his heir in 1700, Philip duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV. who reigned by the name

name of Philip V. He was the first king of the house of Bourbon.

Q. Was there no contention for the crown?

A. Yes; it was disputed him by the archduke of Austria, assisted by the forces of the empire, England, and Holland, who were combined against France: This combination gave rise to a long and bloody war, which was finally terminated by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713; by which it was decided, that Philip should remain in possession of the kingdom of Spain; but that he should give up to the house of Austria all his possessions in Italy, and in the Low Countries.

Q. Who succeeded Philip V.?

A. His son Ferdinand VI.; but this prince dying without children, in 1760, Don Carlos, king of the Two Sicilies, his younger brother, succeeded him, and reigns at present by the name of Charles III.

LESSON LXII.

SPAIN *continued.*

Q. How is Spain governed?

A. It is an absolute monarchy; the crown is hereditary, and even devolves to the females in default of male heirs.

Q. What

Q. What title does the king take?

A. He is called the Most Catholic King, a title which was given to Ferdinand V. by the Pope, for having introduced the inquisition in his states; his eldest son has the title of Prince of the Asturias, as presumptive heir to the crown.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The Roman Catholick; all others are prohibited; and those who follow them are punished by the inquisition.

Q. Where there not formerly a great number of Moors?

A. Yes; but they were entirely expelled under Philip III. in 1609; and that is one reason for the depopulation of the kingdom.

Q. What rivers are there in Spain?

A. The most capital are these four; the Tagus, the Guadiana, the Guadalquivir, and the Ebro:—The Tagus waters New Castille, runs westward, and enters Portugal;—the Guadiana, which separates Algarva from Andalusia, runs south, and falls into the ocean;—the Guadalquivir runs also south, crosses Andalusia and enters the ocean;—the Ebro crosses Arragon and Catalonia, and then discharges itself into the Mediterranean.

Q. How is Spain divided?

A. It is divided into thirteen provinces; four of which are on the ocean, four on the Mediterranean, and five in the middle of the kingdom;

to

to which we must add their islands in the Mediterranean, which are their dependencies.

Q. Which are the four on the ocean?

A. Biscay, the Asturias, Galicia, and Andalusia.

Q. Which are the four on the Mediterranean?

A. The kingdoms of Granada, Murcia, Valencia, and the principality of Catalonia.

Q. Which are the five in the middle?

A. The kingdoms of Arragon, Navarre, Old Castille, New Castille, and Leon.

Q. How are they placed on the maps?

A. The three first are in the north of the kingdom, the five following are south and east along the coast, and the five last in the order we have placed them from east to west.

Q. Why are they called kingdoms?

A. Because that most of them, under the Moors, formed separate kingdoms; which in succession united and composed those of Arragon and Castille.

Q. What islands are dependent on Spain?

A. Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica; they are found in the Mediterranean, opposite the coast of the kingdom of Valencia.

LESSON LXIII.

SPAIN *continued.*

BISCAY, ASTURIAS, GALICIA, and ANDALUSIA.

Q. WHERE is Biscay situated?

A. In the north-east part of Spain, and is a frontier of France; it is a mountainous country, full of forests,—produces iron and rosin.

Q. What separates the two kingdoms?

A. The river Bidasoa, on which is the island of the Pheasants, which belongs to neither; for which reason it was chosen as a proper place to conclude the treaty of the Pyrenees in 1659.

Q. Which is the capital of Biscay?

A. Bilboa, at the mouth of the river Nervio; it is a bishoprick, a sea-port, and a trading city: there are also two fortified places towards the east, Fontarabia and St. Sebastian.

Q. What is the Asturias?

A. The province of Asturias, which is called a principality, lies east of Biscay; it is a barren and mountainous country; they have some vermillion and azure, and a fine breed of horses.

Q. Why does the king's eldest son take that title?

A. Because it is the only province in the kingdom which was never subject to the Moors, and
that

that it was there the Christians retreated to save their liberty; Asturias is divided into Asturias d'Oviedo, and Asturias Santillane, from the names of their capitals; Oviedo is an ancient city,—there is also St. Andero, a sea-port, near Biscay.

Q. Where is Galicia situated?

A. It is situated west of the Asturias, and bounded on two sides by the ocean; it has several sea-ports: this province produces only wine and pasture; they feed a great number of cattle; there are some mines of gold and other metals, but the inhabitants do not work them.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. St. Jago de Compostella, an archbishoprick; the cathedral and the hospital are magnificent; it is the place of all Christian countries which is the most resorted to by pilgrims; they go there to visit the body of St. James, which, they say, is preserved entire: that Apostle is the titular Saint of all Spain, and the first who preached there: the other cities of Galicia are Corogne and Ferrol in the north, two good sea-ports; there is also the bay of Vigo, where the Spanish galleons were destroyed in 1702,—and Cape Finisterre.

Q. Where is Andalusia?

A. It is situated in the south-west part of Spain, and extends to the Strait of Gibraltar; it is the most fruitful and most trading province in Spain; it produces corn, wines, and excellent fruits;

fruits; they have the finest breed of horses; they fish tunny on the coast, and make great quantities of salt; in the mountains they have wild bulls, which the Spaniards make use of for their combats, which is one of their principal diversions, a relic of their Gothic customs.

Q. Which is the capital of Andalusia?

A. The archbishoprick of Seville, on the Guadalquivir, one of the largest and best built cities in the kingdom, and where they carry on the greatest trade; it is to this city they bring all the gold and silver they export from America; it has a fine cathedral, and the palace of Alcazar, built by the Moors, is greatly admired. The other cities are Cadiz, a bishoprick in the west; it is a sea-port, and a place of trade, built on an island: Gibraltar, a well-fortified place on the strait of that name, belonging to England,—and Cordova, an ancient city on the Guadalquivir; there is also Xerez, a little city, in reputation for its wine, near which king Roderic was defeated by the Moors;—and Palos, a small sea-port, where Christopher Columbus embarked when he set out for the discovery of America.

LESSON LXIV.

SPAIN *continued.*

GRANADA, MURCIA, VALENCIA, CATALONIA,
and NAVARRE.

Q. WHAT is the kingdom of Granada?

A. It is situated on the Mediterranean, east of Andalusia; it is a fruitful soil, but thinly peopled; it produces silk and wine, and its inhabitants are the most active and laborious people in the kingdom.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The capital is Granada, an archbishoprick, the largest city in Spain, and the last which the Moors possessed in the kingdom,—there remains still the palace of their kings; the most considerable cities beside this are, Guadix and Malaga, both bishopricks,—the latter is a good port, and well fortified,—it is known all over Europe for its wines.

Q. Where is Murcia situated?

A. Murcia, though called a kingdom, is but a small county, east of Granada; its soil is dry, but produces excellent fruit; they breed a vast number of silk worms, the produce of which is the principal revenue of its inhabitants.

Q

Q. Which

Q. Which is its capital?

A. Its capital is Murcia, a bishoprick, on the Segura, a large and populous city,—the most remarkable thing is the steeple of its cathedral, to which one may ascend in a coach; there is also Carthagena, an ancient and well-fortified city,—it is the best sea-port in Spain, and where they generally equip their men of war; the bishop of Murcia resides there.

Q. What is the kingdom of Valencia?

A. It lies east of Murcia, and is one of the most fruitful and pleasant provinces in Spain; it is well peopled; it abounds in wine, silk, oil, and all sorts of fruit.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The archbishoprick of Valencia, on the Guadalquivir, a large and well built city, where they manufacture various silks; the other remarkable cities are Alicant, a sea-port and a place of great trade, chiefly in red wine, which is in great repute; there is also the bishoprick of Segorbé.

Q. Where is Catalonia situated?

A. It is situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, north of the kingdom of Valencia; it is a mountainous country, but tolerably fruitful; there are mines of metals and minerals, and they find coral on the shore.

Q. What is remarked of the Catalonians?

A. In

A. In the war for the succession to the crown, they joined the archduke Charles against Philip V. and did not return to their duty till they were reduced to the last extremity.

Q. Which is the capital of that province?

A. Barcelona, a bishoprick, a strong, large, populous, and trading city; has a citadel and good harbour: this city, in 1714, held out a long and obstinate siege against Philip V. who having stormed it, took away all their privileges, and built the citadel to awe his subjects.

Q. What other cities are there in Catalonia?

A. As Catalonia is a province near the frontiers of France, there are several strong cities, as Roses and Gironne, in the east,—Lerida, in the west,—and Tortosa on the Ebro, in the south; besides these there is Tarragona, an archbishoprick and sea-port, a very ancient city; and a strong place called Puicerda, towards the north, capital of a small county named Cerdagne.

Q. What is the kingdom of Navarre?

A. It is situated towards the north, on the frontiers of France,—it is a country covered with mountains, producing little besides wine and fruits; there are some mines of iron, but not explored. This kingdom belonged formerly to the house of Albert; it comprehended Upper Navarre, south of the Pyrenees, and the Lower, north of those;—we have spoke of them in the article of France: Ferdinand V. king of Arra-

on, took them from John Albert, grandfather to Henry IV. of France, under pretence of his having been excommunicated by the Pope Julius II. and his possessions to be taken by whoever they might suit.

Q. How came it in the possession of Spain?

A. Upper Navarre was ceded to Spain by the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659, which fixed the boundaries of the two kingdoms; the capital is Pampeluna, an ancient city, well fortified,—it is a bishoprick; the plain of Roncevaux is renowned for the battle lost there by Charlemagne.

LESSON LXV.

SPAIN *continued.*

ARRAGON, OLD CASTILLE, NEW CASTILLE,
LEON, *and the* SPANISH ISLES.

Q. WHERE is the kingdom of Arragon?

A. It is situated south of Navarre, and forms a large province; it is a barren and mountainous country, thinly peopled, and ill cultivated; there are some pasture lands, and iron mines.

The

The inhabitants of this province formerly enjoyed great privileges, and were governed by their own laws; but they lost all these privileges in 1705, for having declared themselves in favour of the archduke Charles, against Philip V.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Saragossa on the Ebro; it is an archbishoprick, and has an university. It was formerly the residence of the kings of Arragon. It has a citadel; and its hospital is esteemed the finest in the Christian world: there is also the university of Huesca.

Q. What is Old Castille?

A. It is a country that lies west of Arragon; its chief revenue is the produce of their wools, which are very fine; otherwise it is ill cultivated, and produces little. Its capital is Burgos, an archbishoprick, a large city, tolerably peopled, but ill built. The cathedral, and the archbishop's palace are admired. Near this city we remark the famous abbey of Las-Huelgas, which is very rich, and in which there are an hundred and fifty monks, all of the first quality.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. There is Valladolid in the west, one of the finest cities in Spain, the former residence of the kings of Castille; there is also Segovia, where they manufacture fine woollen stuffs, and where there is an aqueduct built by the Romans.

Q₃

Q. Where

Q. Where is New Castille situated?

A. New Castille, one of the largest provinces of Spain, lies south of Old Castille; its soil in many places is dry and stony,—notwithstanding that, it produces corn and wine.

Q. How is it divided?

A. Into two parts, which are New Castille proper, and Spanish Estremadura towards the west,—a fruitful country, abounding in corn and pasture. The capital of this, and of all the kingdom, is Madrid, on the Mancanarez; it is the ordinary residence of the sovereign.

Q. What is remarked of this city?

A. That it is large and populous, but very dirty: the chief things to be remarked are the king's palace,—the place where they have their combats, or bull-baitings,—and the bridge over the Mancanarez.

Q. What is met with near Madrid?

A. There are several royal palaces, such as Buen-Retiro, St. Ildefonso, Aranjuez, on the Tagus, and the Escorial.

Q. What is the Escorial?

A. It is a vast and magnificent building, which contains a castle, a convent, and a church, in which the kings and princes of Spain are interred. This edifice was built in memory of a victory gained by Philip II. in 1557, over the French, near St. Quintin, in Picardy, on the day of the

the feast of St. Lawrence; and the Escorial is dedicated to that saint.

Q. What are the other cities of that province?

A. The principal cities are Toledo, on the Tagus, formerly the capital of all the kingdom, the archbishop of which is primate of all Spain; Alcalá-de-Hencraz, an university; and Calatrava, which gives its name to an order of knighthood.

Q. Which is the capital of Spanish Estremadura?

A. Badajos, on the Guadiana, a fortified city near the frontiers of Portugal: there is also Alcantara, from which the knights of a rich order take their name.

Q. What do you remark in that province?

A. The fortress of Placentia, and the convent of the Hieronymites of St. Just, where the emperor Charles V. retired after his abdication.

Q. Where is the kingdom of Leon?

A. It stands west of Old Castille. The chief produce of the country is corn; and they feed a great number of cattle. Its capital is Leon, towards the north; it is a bishoprick: the cathedral is esteemed the largest church in Spain. This city was the capital of the first Christian kingdom which was founded in Spain, after the invasion of the Moors.

Q. What other cities are there in that province?

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A. There

A. There is Salamanca, a bishoprick; its university is the most renowned of all Spain; and Zamora, a bishoprick, on the Douro.

Q. What do the Spanish islands produce?

A. The islands of Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, especially the first, produce wine and oil in abundance; and they meet with coral on the coast.

Q. Which are the principal cities?

A. The bishoprick of Majorca, capital of the island of that name, a large and well fortified city; Citadella, in the Island of Minorca; Port-Mahon, a strong place and excellent harbour; and Ivica, in the island of that name.

Q. What is to be observed in the island of Minorca?

A. That the English took it in 1708, and preserved it by the treaty of Utrecht; the French took it from them in 1757, but they recovered it at the peace of 1763; in the last war with England, the Spaniards took it again; and it has been confirmed to them by the last treaty. They have since demolished fort St. Philip, which was its chief defence.

LESSON LXVI.

Of ITALY.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Italy?

A. Italy is a large peninsula, which advances into the Mediterranean sea, from north to south; on the north it is bounded by the Alps, which separate it from France, Switzerland, and Germany; and on the three other sides by the sea.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. It is one of the best and most agreeable countries in Europe: the air is wholesome,—the climate warm, especially in the south: the soil is fruitful, and produces all the necessaries of life, and all of the first quality. They export a great quantity of raw and wrought silks, medicinal drugs, wines, rice and marble.

Q. Who were the people who inhabited it formerly?

A. It was inhabited by people of different denominations, who all successively passed under the dominion of the Romans, and became also the center of that vast empire.

Q. How were the Romans governed?

A. They were first governed by kings, the first of whom was Romulus, and the last Tarquin, called Superbus. They after that established a republican

lian government, and named Consuls. And lastly by emperors, the first of whom was Julius Cæsar. After that, the emperor Theodosius the Great, in 395, shared the empire between his two sons, Arcadius and Honorius; and from thence came the two empires of the east and west. The latter comprehends Italy.

Q. By whom was Italy invaded?

A. By several northern people, who conquered a part of it, and destroyed the empire of the west, as mentioned in the article of Germany. At the fall of the empire, when the popes became more powerful, several governors of the German empire made themselves independent, and some of the cities in Italy were converted into republics. The emperors, in order to preserve a shadow of authority, gave those usurped provinces as feudal tenures; and the popes doing the same, Italy was divided into a number of small states, in the manner it remains at present.

Q. What do you observe in those different states?

A. Some are independent, others are relevant, either of the pope or the emperor: some are governed monarchically, and others in the form of republics.

Q. Who are the principal sovereigns of Italy?

A. Those who divide Italy amongst them are, the pope, the house of Austria, that of Bourbon, the

the king of Sardinia, the grand duke of Tuscany, and the republics of Venice and Genoa.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. The Roman Catholic : the inquisition suffers no other.—Italy, of all the countries in Europe, is that where there is the greatest number of bishops and archbishops.

Q. Which are their most capital rivers?

A. In the north they have the Pô, which runs from west to east,—receives the Adda and the Tessin, and falls into the gulf of Venice: the Adige, which rises in the east, and has its mouth in the same gulf; the Arno, which crosses Tuscany; and the Tiber, in the states of the church. They have also three considerable lakes, all in the north, and at the foot of the Alps; they are, the lake Maggiore, the lake de Como, and the lake de Garda.

Q. How is Italy divided?

A. It is generally divided into three grand parts, each of which contains several small states; northern and southern Italy, and the islands dependent on them. The northern division contains seven states, viz. one principality, which is Piedmont; two republics, Venice and Genoa; and four duchies, Parma, Milan, Modena, and Mantua. The southern division comprehends three states, the grand-duchy of Tuscany, the states of the church, and the kingdom of Naples.

Q. What

Q. What is it that forms that division?

A. Mounts Appenine, which almost entirely crosses Italy from east to west, and then turns to the south.

Q. Which are the islands that are dependent on Italy?

A. The islands of Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, and Malta.

LESSON LXVII.

ITALY continued.

The Principality of **PIEDMONT**, *and Republic of*
GENOA.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Piedmont?

A. Its name alone indicates its situation, which is at the foot of the Alps, north of Italy, and has Provence in the west; it is a mountainous, but fruitful and populous country; they feed a vast number of cattle,—and the country is defended by several well fortified places.

Q. To whom does it belong?

A. To Charles Emanuel, king of Sardinia, whose family has been in possession of it since the fourteenth century.

Q. Which

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Turin, on the Pô, an archbishoprick, the ordinary residence of the king; it is a large, well-built city, defended by a good citadel; the other principal cities of Piedmont are, Verceil and Verrue, in the east,—Pignerol, Saluces, and Coni, in the west; they are all fortified.

Q. What other possessions has the king of Sardinia?

A. He has the earldom of Nice, in the south,—Montferrat, in the west,—and some other cities, with their dependencies, in the west of the Milanese.

Q. Which is the capital of the earldom of Nice?

A. The capital is Nice, a bishoprick and fortified sea-port; there is also Ville-Franche, another sea-port.

Q. To whom did Montferrat belong?

A. It had formerly its own sovereigns, who were called Marquisses; but their family being extinct, it was divided between the dukes of Savoy and Mantua; it belongs at present, in great part, to the king of Sardinia, the house of Austria having given up its pretensions; there are in it four fortified places, Navarre, Valence, Alexandria, and Tortona.

Q. Where is Genoa situated?

A. It lays south of Piedmont, and forms a gulf on the coast of the Mediterranean; it is a
dry

dry and stony soil, and full of mountains,—produces wine, oil, and various fruits; the people of Genoa, after having had an active part in the different revolutions of Italy, bought their liberty of the emperor Rodolphus I. and erected the state into a republic.

Q. What success had they?

A. The state, grown rich by their maritime trade, increased in strength, and entered into the general wars of Europe; but the unsettled disposition of the people drew them into many troubles; then, to assure their tranquillity, they put themselves successively under the protection of the emperors, the kings of France, and the dukes of Milan, till Andrew Doria, one of their citizens, revived the republican system.

Q. Who was Andrew Doria?

A. He was the greatest seaman of his time; he rather chose to be the liberator of his country, than its sovereign, and established, in 1530, that form of government which now subsists at Genoa.

Q. What is that government?

A. It is an absolute aristocracy,—the sovereignty resides solely in the nobles,—they form the grand council of the republic, out of which they chuse the senators, who form the little council and the magistrates, the chief of whom is the Doge, to whom they give the title of Serene; he presides in all the councils, but has only one
vote;

vote; he holds his place two years, during which time he is prisoner in his palace.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The capital of the whole state is Genoa, an archbishoprick and a sea-port; it is a large trading city,—the Italians call it the superb, on account of its magnificent buildings; they manufacture velvets and other silk stuffs. It was bombarded, in 1684, by the French fleet, and Lewis XIV. obliged the doge and four senators to come to Versailles to offer the submission of the republick.

Q. What has happened since?

A. The queen of Hungary's army took possession of the city,—but in 1746, the people revolted against the troops, drove them out, and with the aid of France recovered their liberty.

Q. What other cities have they?

A. The chief cities of Genoa are, Savona, in the west,—it is a bishoprick and a strong sea-port, where soap was first invented. They have also Finale, the capital of the marquisate of that name,—and St. Remo, a sea-port. On the western coast we meet with the little principality of Monaco, which has its own prince, under the protection of France,—its capital is Monaco,—it has a fortification.

LESSON LXVIII.

ITALY continued.

The Duchies of MILAN, PARMA, MODENA, *and*
MANTUA.

Q. WHAT is the dutchy of Milan?

A. It is a rich and fruitful country, situated east of Peidmont, and west of the states of Venice; it extends as far as the foot of the Alps, on the north; it formerly belonged to the house of Visconti, as a foedal tenure of the empire,—but that family being extinct, in 1515, Lewis XII. and Francis I. of France, produced their titles to that dutchy, which occasioned several wars. Francis Sforza, who had also his pretensions, maintained himself in possession of it, but when that family failed, the emperor Charles V. gave it to his son, Philip II. afterwards king of Spain; his successors remained in possession of it till the reign of Philip V. who, in 1714, abandoned it to the house of Austria by the treaty of Rastatt: at present it belongs to the reigning emperor of Germany, who keeps a governor there.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The city of Milan is the capital of the dutchy,—it is an archbishoprick, on the Tessin
and

and the Adda, which are joined by two canals; this city is surnamed the Great,—it is a rich, trading city, and well built;—the cathedral is one of the finest of all Christendom, and the citadel is very strong. The other cities of the Milanese state, Pavia, in the south, a bishoprick on the Tessin; Cremona, in the east, a bishoprick on the Pò, a fortified place; and the bishoprick of Côme, on the lake of that name, a rich and trading city.

Q. What is observed of Pavia?

A. It was near this place that the famous battle was fought, in 1525, between the armies of the emperor Charles V. and Francis I. in which the latter was made prisoner.

Q. Where are the states of Parma situated?

A. They lay south of the dutchy of Milan; it is a fruitful soil,—they feed a great number of black cattle; it is there they make that excellent cheese known by the name of Parmesan.

Q. What does this state contain?

A. The dutchies of Parma and Placentia, which for a long time past obeyed the same sovereign: being, after many revolutions, come into the hands of the popes, Paul III. of the house of Farnese, gave it to Peter Lewis, his natural son, who was the first of the dukes of that family. The last duke Anthony, dying without issue, Elizabeth Farnese, his neice, heiress of that house, and consort to Philip V. king of Spain,

R

sent

sent her son Don Carlos, to take possession of the dutchies of Parma and Placentia, in 1730. Don Carlos having after that invaded the kingdom of Naples, during the war in Italy, 1733, it was decided by the treaty which put an end to the war, that Don Carlos should remain in possession of that kingdom, and give in exchange, Parma and Placentia to the house of Austria.

Q. To whom does it belong at present?

A. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the house of Austria made a cession of it to Don Philip, infant of Spain, younger brother to Don Carlos, and son-in-law to the king of France; on condition, that in default of male heirs, or in case that the successors of Don Philip should come to the throne of Naples or Spain, those states should be divided between the house of Austria and the king of Sardinia. After the death of Don Philip, in 1765, the dutchies of Parma and Placentia devolved to his only son Ferdinand, who is now in possession of them.

Q. To whom was the dutchy of Parma tributary?

A. To the pope: it paid him annually ten thousand crowns; but it was freed from that ancient duty by the quadruple alliance.

Q. Which are the capitals of the two dutchies?

A. The capital of the dutchy of Parma is the city of Parma, on the Parma; a bishoprick, a large and populous city, the residence of the sovereign: the capital

capital of Placentia is also the city and bishoprick of Placentia, on the Po.

Q. What is the state of Modena?

A. That state lies east of Parma; it is a fruitful country, producing corn and wine; it comprehends two dutchies, Modena and Reggio, both which bear the name of their capital.

Q. To whom does it belong?

A. For three centuries past it has belonged to the house of Este, one of the most ancient families in Italy; and, though the duke is a sovereign, he is nevertheless tributary to the emperor, to whom he pays forty thousand crowns *per annum*.

Q. What do you observe of Modena?

A. Modena is a bishoprick; a large, ancient, and populous city; it is the ordinary residence of the sovereign. The remarkable buildings are, the duke's palace, and the citadel, which is very strong.

Q. What is the dutchy of Mantua?

A. It is situated east of the Milanese; it produces corn, wine and rice; has excellent pasture, and abounds in cattle:—For a long time it belonged to the family of Goznagua, as a tenure relevant of the empire; Charles, the last duke, dying without issue, in 1708, this state returned to the emperor Charles VI. then to the empress queen of Hungary, and now it belongs to the reigning emperor, who has united it to the dutchy of Milan.

R 2

Q. Which

sent her son Don Carlos, to take possession of the dutchies of Parma and Placentia, in 1730. Don Carlos having after that invaded the kingdom of Naples, during the war in Italy, 1733, it was decided by the treaty which put an end to the war, that Don Carlos should remain in possession of that kingdom, and give in exchange, Parma and Placentia to the house of Austria.

Q. To whom does it belong at present?

A. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the house of Austria made a cession of it to Don Philip, infant of Spain, younger brother to Don Carlos, and son-in-law to the king of France; on condition, that in default of male heirs, or in case that the successors of Don Philip should come to the throne of Naples or Spain, those states should be divided between the house of Austria and the king of Sardinia. After the death of Don Philip in 1765, the dutchies of Parma and Placentia devolved to his only son Ferdinand, who is now in possession of them.

Q. To whom was the dutchy of Parma tributary?

A. To the pope; it paid him annually ten thousand crowns; but it was freed from that ancient duty by the quadruple alliance.

Q. Which are the capitals of the two dutchies?

A. The capital of the dutchy of Parma is the city of Parma, on the Parma; a bishoprick, a large and populous city, the residence of the sovereign: the capital

capital of Placentia is also the city and bishoprick of Placentia, on the Po.

Q. What is the state of Modena?

A. That state lies east of Parma; it is a fruitful country, producing corn and wine; it comprehends two dutchies, Modena and Reggio, both which bear the name of their capital.

Q. To whom does it belong?

A. For three centuries past it has belonged to the house of Este, one of the most ancient families in Italy; and, though the duke is a sovereign, he is nevertheless tributary to the emperor, to whom he pays forty thousand crowns *per annum*.

Q. What do you observe of Modena?

A. Modena is a bishoprick; a large, ancient, and populous city; it is the ordinary residence of the sovereign. The remarkable buildings are, the duke's palace, and the citadel, which is very strong.

Q. What is the dutchy of Mantua?

A. It is situated east of the Milanese; it produces corn, wine and rice; has excellent pasture, and abounds in cattle:—For a long time it belonged to the family of Goznagua, as a tenure relevant of the empire; Charles, the last duke, dying without issue, in 1708, this state returned to the emperor Charles VI. then to the empress queen of Hungary, and now it belongs to the reigning emperor, who has united it to the dutchy of Milan.

R 2

Q. Which

Q. Which is the capital of the dutchy?

A. Mantua; a bishoprick, and fortified city, on a lake formed by the river Mincio; it is a large and populous city.

Q. What other dutchies do you remark?

A. Besides those already spoken of, there are others in that part of Italy; the most considerable are Guastalla and Mirandola, which had formerly their sovereigns:—The first was ceded to the infant Don Philip, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748; and the second was bought by the duke of Modena, in 1711; each bears the name of its capital.

LESSON LXIX.

ITALY continued.

Of the States of Venice.

Q. WHERE are the states of Venice?

A. The states of Venice are much the largest of those in the northern division of Italy: they are situated east of the Milanese, having the gulf of Venice on the south, and Germany on the north.

These states formed themselves gradually, when various people of the north, and particularly the Huns, made an irruption into Italy, under the command of their king Attila; many of the inhabitants of Lombardy, to screen themselves from the cruelty of those barbarians, took shelter in the Lagoones, which are little islands at the extremity of the Adriatic gulf.

Q. How were they governed?

A. At first every island had its particular governor; but in 709 they united,—formed but one state, and elected one chief for the whole, with the title of doge, or duke; their extensive trade soon made them rich and powerful: they took an active part in the crusades, and in the Christian wars against the Turks; they even made several conquests in the Levant; but some of them have been retaken by the Turks.

Q. Who created a faction against them?

A. The pope, the emperor, and the kings of France and Spain, entered into a confederation against the Venetians, who nevertheless escaped the impending danger. In 1606, the pope, Paul V. excommunicated the Venetians, and interdicted the whole republick; but by the resolution of the senate, and the mediation of Henry IV. king of France, an accommodation was brought about. In 1618, the Spanish ambassador at Venice, formed a conspiracy against the city, which was to have destroyed it entirely; but the horrid plot was hap-

stiff

R 3

pily

pily discovered the day before it was to have been put in execution.

Q. What system have the Venetians adopted?

A. That of observing an exact neutrality in the wars of other European powers; and by that method they constantly preserve peace at home.

Q. How is Venice governed?

A. The government is absolutely aristocratic; the nobles have all the sovereignty in their own hands. It is the oldest republick in Europe. The chief magistrate is the doge, and his place is for life; he is president of all the councils, but, like the other senators, he has but one vote: he cannot go out of the city without the consent of the senate.

Q. How many councils are there?

A. There is the grand council, composed of all the nobles who have attained the age of thirty; the council of Pregadi, or the senate; the college of twenty six, which gives audience to ambassadors; the council of ten, who are the criminal judges; and the spiritual council, which settles religious affairs.

Q. Which is the capital of the states?

A. Venice, an archbishoprick, with the title of patriarch; it is surnamed the rich, and is one of the greatest trading, and most populous cities in Europe; the chief manufactures are silk, stuff, and looking-glasses. The city is built upon seventy-two islands, which all have a communication with each

each other by a great number of bridges : the houses are all built upon piles ; the canals form the streets, which they cross in boats, called gondolas. The principal edifices are the church and place of St. Mark, which are very beautiful, the ducal palace, the arsenal, which is one of the best-furnished in Europe, and the Rialto-bridge of one arch only, ninety feet wide.

Q. What ceremony have they ?

A. Every year, on Ascension-day, the doge, accompanied by the senate, mounting a vessel, called the Bucentaur, advances into the ship-road, and performs the ceremony of espousing the sea, to show the republic's empire over the gulf of Venice.

Q. How is the state of Venice divided ?

A. It is divided into several provinces, which they call *terra firma* states, and are a part of Italy. All these provinces have the names of their capitals. The principal cities are Padua, surnamed the learned, which has a famous university ; Verona, where there is an amphitheatre built by the Romans ; Bergamo, famous for its tapestry ; Bresse, Vicenza, the Marca Trevigiana, trading and fortified cities. It is also in possession of part of Dalmatia, and some islands in the gulf of Venice ; we will speak of them in the ensuing lesson.

LESSON LXX.

ITALY, continued.

The Grand Dutchy of TUSCANY.

Q. WHERE is the grand dutchy of Tuscany?

A. It is bounded north and east by mount Appenine; and by the Mediterranean south and west. The country abounds in every thing: there are quarries of marble, and mines of different metals.

Q. How was it formerly composed?

A. About two centuries ago it was composed of the republicks of Florence, Pisa, and Sienna, independent of each other, and which had gained their liberty during the wars of Italy. After a long war the Florentines subdued Pisa, and bought the territory of Sienna from the Spaniards, who had invaded it.

Q. What revolution happened at Florence?

A. The family of Medicis, one of the first in Florence, by their immense riches, and the protection of several popes, who were of that family, found means to become sovereigns there. Alexander de Medicis, who was made duke of Florence in 1531, by the emperor Charles V. who had previously

viously given him his natural daughter in marriage; Cosmo, his cousin, who succeeded him in 1569, obtained of pope Pius V. the title of grand-duke of Tuscany, and acquired the city of Sienna; the last of that house was John Gaston, who dying without issue, in 1737, the grand duchy of Tuscany passed to the house of Lorraine, in exchange for the duchy of that name, as we have before observed.

Q. To whom does that state belong at present?

A. That state having devolved to Francis I. of Lorraine, who married Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, it is now included in the possessions of the house of Austria: Francis I. with the consent of his eldest son, who was afterwards the emperor Joseph II. gave the grand duchy of Tuscany to the archduke Peter Leopold, his second son; but Joseph dying without issue, in 1790, Peter Leopold ascended the throne of Hungary and Bohemia, and has since been elected emperor; and with the consent of his eldest son, has given the grand duchy of Tuscany to his second son, Francis Joseph Charles, archduke of Austria, who is now in possession of it.

Q. How is the grand duchy divided?

A. Into three provinces; the Florentine, the Pisan, and the Siennese; the first in the east, and the two others in the west, on the coast of the Mediterranean.

Q. Which is the capital of the first?

A. Florence,

A. Florence, on the Arno; a large, well-built, and trading city, surnamed the handsome; it is an archbishoprick, with an university; the palace of the grand dukes contains a valuable library, and many antiquities. There are besides a great number of magnificent buildings.

Q. Which is the capital of the Pisan?

A. Pisa, an archbishoprick, and a large city, but not populous, and which has lost much of its ancient splendour.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. There is Leghorn, a bishoprick, a sea-port, and a fortified city, where they carry on the greatest trade of all Italy, on account of the free exercise of religion being allowed to the merchants who settle there.

Q. Which is the capital of the Siennese?

A. Sienna, an archbishoprick; a large and fortified city; the cathedral is greatly admired, for its being covered over, on all parts, with black and white marble. In 1557, when Philip II. king of Spain, sold the Siennese to the Florentines, he reserved some fortified places on the coasts of that province; those are called the garrisoned states, and belonged to the Spaniards till 1707.

Q. To whom do those places belong now.

A. After that the emperor took possession of them; but in 1736, they were given to Don Carlos, king of Naples, afterwards king of Spain, by a treaty between that crown and the house of Austria.

Q. What

Q. What are those places?

A. The principal are, Orbitello, Porto-Hercolo, and Porto-Longono; the last is in the isle of Elbe, which is near the coast of Tuscany. In that island the grand duke possesses a fortified place, called Porto Ferrara.

Q. What is found near the grand dutchy?

A. On the north we meet the little republick of Lucca, which has subsisted for three centuries; it is under the protection of the emperor.

Q. How is it governed?

A. Aristocratically; the nobles chuse among themselves a chief, called the Gonfalonier, who is but two months in office: the capital is Lucca, surnamed the industrious; it is a bishoprick, and a fortified and rich city; the inhabitants trade considerably in silks, wines, and olives; the port is Viareggio.

LESSON LXXI.

ITALY continued.

The States of the Church.

Q. WHAT are the states of the church?

A. They are that part of Italy of which the pope is sovereign; they are so called because

the Roman Catholics look upon the pope as the visible chief of the church. They are situated south and east of the grand duchy of Tuscany, and north of the kingdom of Naples.

Q. How were those states formed?

A. Originally, the Popes were only the bishops of Rome; they afterwards became the temporal sovereigns of that city, and of all its dependencies. The frequent wars of Italy, in the past centuries, gave them various opportunities of increasing their power and extending their dominions, particularly those factions known by the names of Guelphs and Ghibelins, in 1137.

Q. What were those factions?

A. They were two parties which divided all Italy: the former held for the pope, and the latter for the emperor, whose interests were in opposition to each other. It is to be remarked, that the separation of Italy into so many different states, assisted the popes to acquire those which they found most suitable, and at their devotion.

Q. What do those states produce?

A. The air is not so wholesome in the states of the church as in the other parts of Italy; they have often epidemical disorders near Rome; but the soil is good.

Q. How is it governed?

A. Monarchically; the pope, who is sovereign of it, sends legates, or governors, to the distant provinces.

Q. Is

Q. Is the sovereign elective?

A. Yes; the pope is elected by seventy cardinals, who are as princes of the Catholic church, out of which he must have at least two-thirds of the votes, in order to proceed on those elections: the cardinals assemble in a place called the conclave, in which they are shut up, and cannot go out till the pope is elected.

Q. What title does he take?

A. The Catholics believe the pope to be the vicar of Jesus Christ upon earth; for that reason they call him the holy-father, or his holiness.

Q. Who is the present pope?

A. Before his election he was called Cardinal Braschi; but took the name of Pius VI. in 1775.

Q. What extraordinary journey did he make?

A. Having been informed that the emperor Joseph II. had suppressed some convents, and made alterations in ecclesiastical affairs, he resolved to make a journey to Vienna, to confer on that subject with the emperor. He was received with great honour at the court of Vienna, and returned to his own residence.

Q. What do the states of the church comprehend?

A. They contain many provinces, which may be reduced to eight principal; there are three of them west of the Apennine mountains, and five east and north of it. The three first are the country

country of Rome, the patrimony of St. Peter, and Umbria. The five others are the Marche of Ancona, the duchy of Urbino, Romanya, the Boulonnese, and the Ferrarois.

Q. Which is the capital of those states?

A. Rome, on the Tiber, in the country of Rome, surnamed the Saint, the ordinary residence of the pope, and most of the cardinals who are his council. This city was built 753 years before the birth of Jesus Christ, and was a long time the capital of a vast empire, and the first city in the world; but it has been so often plundered and taken, that it is now much less and populous than it was formerly. There we see the superb church of St. Peter, the largest and finest of all Christendom; the pope's palace, called the Vatican; the castle of St. Angelo, a modern fortification; and several precious monuments of antiquity. There is also in the country of Rome the city of Ostia, a bishoprick, and a sea-port, a very ancient city on the Tiber.

Q. What cities are there in St. Peter's Patrimony?

A. Viterba the capital, a bishoprick; and Civita-Vecchia, a sea-port, where the pope keeps his galleys.

Q. Which is the capital of Umbria?

A. The bishoprick of Spoletta.

Q. What is there in the Marche d'Ancona?

A. Ancona,

1. Ancona, a sea-port ; and Loretto, a small city, famous for the concourse of pilgrims who resort there to see the holy chamber, which they pretend to have been brought there from Nazareth by the angels, and to be that which was inhabited by the blessed Virgin Mary.

2. Which are the capitals of the four other provinces ?

1. Urbino, capital of the dutchy of that name ; Ravenna, surnamed the ancient, capital of Romagna ; Bologna, capital of the Bolognese ; and Ferrara, capital of the Ferrarois : all these cities are archbishopricks. Between the dutchy of Urbino and Romagna, there is the little republic of St. Marino, under the protection of the pope and the emperor. It is governed by its own laws, and its capital is a bishoprick of the same name.

LESSON LXXII.

ITALY *continued.*

Of the Kingdom of NAPLES.

2. WHERE is the kingdom of Naples ?

1. The kingdom of Naples is the most extensive of all the states of Italy, and occupies the

the southern part of it; has the states of the church on the north, and the sea on the three other sides. The climate is hot, the air is pure and wholesome, and the soil fruitful in every thing. It produces manna and other medicinal drugs. The country is subject to earthquakes.

Q. To whom did it first belong?

A. At the time that the Roman empire was divided, the kingdom of Naples fell to the emperors of the east, from whom the Saracens took it in the ninth century; but it was again taken from them two hundred years after, by some Norman gentlemen. These laid the foundation of that kingdom, which they and their descendants possessed for some time; and in 1186 it passed to the house of Swabia, by the marriage of Constance, the heiress of that kingdom, with the emperor Henry VI. That family was in possession of it till the tragic death of young Conradin, the last prince of that house; after which it fell, in 1268, to the house of Anjou, of which the first king was Charles, count of Provence.

Q. Who were the sovereigns who contended for this kingdom?

A. Jane II. of Anjou, dying without issue, in 1495, Ferdinand V. king of Arragon, and Charles VIII. of France, who had pretensions on that kingdom, took up arms to support them; after which, Naples was shared between the king of Arragon and Lewis XII. who had succeeded

ceeded to Charles VIII.; but war soon broke out again, and the French were entirely excluded. — Since that it remained a part of Spain, till the beginning of the present century, and was given up to the house of Austria by the treaty of Baden, in 1741.

Q. To whom was it finally allotted?

A. It passed in 1736, to Don Carlos, infant of Spain; and that prince being called to the crown of Spain, his third son was crowned king of Naples, by the name of Ferdinand IV. in 1760.

Q. What title does the sovereign take?

A. He is called king of the Two Sicilies, because the kingdom of Naples was formerly called Sicily on this side the Faro; and his eldest son takes the title of duke of Calabria.

Q. To whom is this kingdom tributary?

A. It is relevant of the popes, who, for a long time past, have arrogated to themselves a sovereignty over it; in virtue of that, the king of Naples pays him the yearly tribute of a jenet, or white pad, with seven thousand ducats.

Q. How is it governed?

A. It is an absolute monarchy; the crown is hereditary, even to females in failure of males. The king decides in religious affairs, as a legate of the Holy See.

Q. How is that kingdom divided?

A. Into

A. Into four grand provinces; the territory of Labour, in the west; the Abbruzza, in the north; the Pouillia, in the east; and Calabria, in the south: each of these provinces contains three others of small extent.

Q. Which is the capital of all the kingdom?

A. Naples, a bishoprick and sea-port, in the territory of Labour, and furnamed the Noble; this is one of the largest and most magnificent built cities in Europe, and has a considerable trade. Near the city is Mount Vefuvius, a famous volcano, which continually emits a thick smoke, and sometimes a torrent of red-hot lava, which overspreads all the neighbouring country: when this lava grows cold, it becomes as hard as stone, and in fact, they cut it into square pieces, with which they pave their streets.

Q. What has been discovered of late years?

A. Near Portici, one of the king's pleasure-houses, they have discovered the ruins of the ancient city of Herculaneum, which was destroyed by an earthquake under the reign of the emperor Titus, in the year 81.

Q. What other cities are there in the territory of Labour?

A. The principal cities are, the archbishoprick of Capua, an ancient city; and Gaetta, a sea-port and fortified place, on the frontiers towards the north. There is also the archbishoprick

rick of Salerno, Caserta, a royal palace; and the abbey of Mount Cassino.

Q. What did the popes possess in that province?

A. They were a long time in possession of the city and archbishoprick of Benevento, with its dependencies, which are surrounded by the territories of Labour. In 1768, the king of Naples had united that province to his domain, but made a restitution of it to the Holy See in 1774.

Q. What cities are there in the other provinces?

A. In the Abbruzza they have Chietti, an archbishoprick, towards the north, and Aquila, a fortified place; in the Pouilla, there is Bari, the capital, and two sea-ports, Tarinte and Brindisi: in Calabria, Cozenza and Reggio, two archbishopricks; the latter is a good port, at the extremity of the kingdom, towards Sicily.

Q. What fatal event did Calabria experience?

A. They have had several violent earthquakes, by which great part of the coast has been swallowed up by the sea, in 1783, in which a great number of lives were lost, with the city of Reggio and its environs.

LESSON LXXIII.

Of the Islands of ITALY.

Q. WHERE is Sicily situated?

A. Sicily is the largest island in the Mediterranean; it is situated south of the kingdom of Naples, and is separated from it by the strait or Faro of Messina: it is a fruitful soil, and produces great quantity of corn, for which reason it is called the granary of Italy. It also produces silk, oil, saffron, and many medicinal drugs.

Q. What is remarked on the history of that island.

A. Since the conquest which the Normans made of this island, when they also made themselves masters of Naples, it has almost ever been a part of that kingdom, and has had the same sovereign. Under the reign of Charles of Anjou, the Sicilians, dissatisfied with the French government, revolted and made a general slaughter of them in 1281. This massacre is known by the name of the Sicilian Vespers, because they chose that time to execute it.

Q. To whom does the island belong at present?

A. It was given to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, by the king of Spain; but Amadeus, in

1720, gave it to the emperor, in exchange for the island of Sardinia. It now belongs to the king of Naples, who keeps a viceroy there.

Q. How is Sicily divided?

A. The island being of a triangular figure, it is divided into three vallies, which are the Valley of Mazara, in the west; that called Val Demona, in the north; and the Valley of Noto, in the south.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. Palermo, an archbishoprick, in the valley of Mazara, a sea-port, and the residence of the viceroy. In the same province there is a sea-port called Trapani.

Q. What cities in Val Demona?

A. Messina, a sea-port and archbishoprick, on the strait of that name: this is the richest and most trading city in the island, defended by several forts, but has been in great part ruined by an earthquake, in 1783. There is also Taormina, an ancient city.

Q. What is there in the valley of Noto?

A. There is Syracuse, an ancient sea-port town; Catania, a bishoprick, near which is that famous volcano called Mount Etna or Gibello; and Cape Passaro.

Q. Where is the island of Sardinia?

A. It is situated north of Sicily; it is called a kingdom. It is tolerably fruitful and well peopled, producing various fruits. They have plenty of

tunny-fish, and coral on the shore. This island, after having been long disputed by the Genoese and the Pisans, was conquered, in 1323, by the king of Arragon: since then it constituted part of the Spanish monarchy, till the beginning of this century, Philip V. having ceded it to the house of Austria by the treaty of Rastat, in 1714. The emperor Charles VI. gave it, as we said before, in exchange for Sicily, to the duke of Savoy, who is now sovereign of it, and keeps a vice roy there.

Q. How is Sardinia divided ?

A. Into two provinces or capes; Cape Cagliari in the south, and Cape Lugodori in the north. The capital is Cagliari, a pretty large city; the residence of the viceroy; it is an archbishoprick, and a sea-port. In the north of the island there is Sassari, a bishoprick and sea port.

Q. Where is the island of Corsica situated?

A. It is situated north of Sardinia, from which it is only separated by the strait of San Bonifacio. It is of no great produce, except on the coasts: it is a mountainous country, and full of forests.

Q. With what do they furnish other nations?

A. Principally with fruits, oil, salt, and wood for shipping. They are an unpolished people, but good soldiers, and jealous of their liberty. This island is titled a kingdom, and for a long time belonged to the republic of Genoa; but the Corsicans, dissatisfied with their government,

ment, revolted in 1730, and have not been subjected since by the Genoese. In 1736 they elected for their sovereign, Theodore, baron of Newhoff; who, after a short time, left the island. The Genoese, aided at times by France, and at others by the emperor, had maintained themselves in possession of the capital, and some places on the coast: but the Corsicans, favoured by their mountains, had preserved their independence, and chose Pascal Paoli, one of their own countrymen, for their chief; who for several years defended their liberty with success. In short, the Genoese having lost all hope of recovering the island, determined to give it up to the French, who sent troops, and took possession of it in 1769. The capital is Bastia, towards the north; it is a sea-port, a bishoprick, and the residence of the governor. There are also two small cities, Ajaccio and Calvi.

Q. What is the island of Malta?

A. It is a small island situated south of Sicily, to which the bishop is suffragan. It produces little more than fruits and wine. It belongs to the knights of St. John, or chevaliers of Malta, the richest and most powerful order in Christendom. It was given them in 1522, with the city of Tripoli, in Africa, by the emperor Charles V. after the knights had been obliged to quit the Holy Land and the island of Rhodes, where they had been long established; the chief

of the order is called the grand-master, and generally resides in the island, of which he is sovereign. The principal members are the grand-crosses and commanders. The capital is Malta, a bishoprick, and the strongest place in Europe; it sustained a famous siege against the Turks, in 1565. It is divided into three parts; the Valette, the Bourg, and the isle of St. Michael. The order of Malta has great possessions in most of the states of Europe. It is separated into seven provinces, each of which contains several priories and commanderies.

LESSON LXXIV.

EUROPEAN TURKEY.

Q. WHAT is European Turkey?

A. It is that part of the Turkish empire which is situated in Europe, and which occupies the southern coast towards the east. It is bounded on the north by Hungary; by the Black Sea on the east; by the Mediterranean on the south; and by the gulf of Venice on the west.

Q. What do they possess besides?

A. They

A. They possess also many other provinces; and their empire is generally divided into twenty-four grand governments, of which there are five in Europe, eighteen in Asia, and one in Africa.

Q. Of what nature is the country?

A. As European Turkey is very extensive, the air, the climate, and the soil are very different. The southern part is subject to the plague. The soil in general would be greatly productive, were it not for the supineness of the Turks; and very populous, but for the rigour of the government.

Q. What is the origin of the Turks?

A. They take their origin from Tartary. After having served the Saracens as auxiliary troops in the seventh century, they revolted against them, and took the kingdom of Persia from them. They, after that, embraced the Mahometan religion, assembled all their tribes, and conquered a part of Asia, which belonged to the emperors of the east. Their chief was Osmyn, or Ottoman; he was the first who took the title of Sultan, in 1296, and is looked upon as the founder of the Turkish monarchy, the seat of which he established in the city of Bursa, in Asia. His successors extended their conquests more and more,—penetrated into Europe, and found means to destroy the eastern empire, then called the Grecian empire.

Q. Who

Q. Who were the most renowned of their sovereigns?

A. Those who have the most contributed to encrease the power of that nation are, Amurath I. Bajazet I. Amurath II. Mahomet II. Selim I. Soliman II. and Mahomet IV.

Q. What did Amurath I.?

A. He made himself master of part of Greece; and, in 1362, fixed the seat of his empire at Adrianople.

Q. What do you remark of Bajazet I.?

A. After having gained several battles over the Christians, and conquered the remainder of Greece, he was defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane, in 1402, who condemned him to finish his days in an iron cage.

Q. What was Amurath II. remarkable for?

A. He extended his conquests towards the north, and had frequent wars in Hungary against the Christians, over whom he gained the famous battle of Varna, in 1444.

Q. What was Mahomet II.?

A. He was the greatest conqueror the Turks ever had; he entirely destroyed the empire of Greece, in 1453, and made himself master of Constantinople. Constantine Paleologus, the last emperor, was killed at the taking of this city.

Q. What did Selim I.?

A. He conquered Egypt, with part of Barbary, in 1517, and put an end to the empire of the Mammeluks.

Q. What

Q. What do you remark of Soliman II. ?

A. He took Belgrade and part of Hungary; and in 1522, he took the island of Rhodes from the Knights of St. John, and besieged Vienna, without success, in 1529; and the island of Malta, in 1565.

Q. What did Mahomet IV. ?

A. His reign was almost an incessant war with the house of Austria in Hungary, and with the Venetians, from whom he conquered the island of Candia, in 1669. He was deposed, and died in prison. From that time the Turks have been greatly checked by the emperors, who have entirely driven them out of Hungary; and also much restrained by the czar Peter the Great, and by Thamas-Kouli-Khan, king of Persia, who have deprived them of many provinces.

Q. Who were the last sultans ?

A. Achmet III. who concluded the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, with the Imperialists; Mahomet V. who made that of Belgrade in 1739; Mustapha III. who ascended the throne in 1757; Abdul Hamet, his brother, who succeeded him in 1774; and Selim III, the reigning sultan, proclaimed the 8th of April, 1789.

Q. What is the Turkish government ?

A. It is a monarchical, and even a despotic government; that is to say, that the sovereign is master of the lives and fortunes of his subjects, and that his will is above the laws. He takes the

Q. Who were the most renowned of their sovereigns?

A. Those who have the most contributed to encrease the power of that nation are, Amurath I. Bajazet I. Amurath II. Mahomet II. Selim I. Soliman II. and Mahomet IV.

Q. What did Amurath I.?

A. He made himself master of part of Greece; and, in 1362, fixed the seat of his empire at Adrianople.

Q. What do you remark of Bajazet I.?

A. After having gained several battles over the Christians, and conquered the remainder of Greece, he was defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane, in 1402, who condemned him to finish his days in an iron cage.

Q. What was Amurath II. remarkable for?

A. He extended his conquests towards the north, and had frequent wars in Hungary against the Christians, over whom he gained the famous battle of Varna, in 1444.

Q. What was Mahomet II.?

A. He was the greatest conqueror the Turks ever had; he entirely destroyed the empire of Greece, in 1453, and made himself master of Constantinople. Constantine Paleologus, the last emperor, was killed at the taking of this city.

Q. What did Selim I.?

A. He conquered Egypt, with part of Barbary, in 1517, and put an end to the empire of the Mammeluks.

Q. What

Q. What do you remark of Soliman II. ?

A. He took Belgrade and part of Hungary; and in 1522, he took the island of Rhodes from the Knights of St. John, and besieged Vienna, without success, in 1529; and the island of Malta, in 1565.

Q. What did Mahomet IV. ?

A. His reign was almost an incessant war with the house of Austria in Hungary, and with the Venetians, from whom he conquered the island of Candia, in 1669. He was deposed, and died in prison. From that time the Turks have been greatly checked by the emperors, who have entirely driven them out of Hungary; and also much restrained by the czar Peter the Great, and by Thamas-Kouli-Khan, king of Persia, who have deprived them of many provinces.

Q. Who were the last sultans ?

A. Achmet III. who concluded the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, with the Imperialists; Mahomet V. who made that of Belgrade in 1739; Mustapha III. who ascended the throne in 1757; Abdul Hamet, his brother, who succeeded him in 1774; and Selim III, the reigning sultan, proclaimed the 8th of April, 1789.

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the title of Sultan or Grand Signior; he is called Highness; his court is called the Ottoman Porte; his prime minister is stiled the Grand Vizier; he has a numerous corps of infantry for his guard, called Janissaries

Q. What is their religion?

A. Their religion is the Mahometan, founded by the false prophet Mahomet, who lived about six hundred years after Jesus Christ. It consists in believing an only God, and Mahomet his sole prophet. This religion may be reduced to five principal precepts;—prayer, abstinence from wine, fasting, alms, and pilgrimage to Mecca. It permits the plurality of wives.

Q. What is the Alcoran?

A. It is looked upon by the Mahometans as their rule of faith. It is a book composed by Mahomet, and contains a mixture of passages from the holy scriptures, and a great number of absurdities. The chief of the religion is called Mufti; they keep the Friday sacred; their temples are called mosques; they follow the lunar year; and their epoch is the hegira, or flight of the prophet, who was forced to leave the city of Mecca in 622. In this part of Turkey there are a great number of Greek Christians subject to the Turks, and many Jews, who carry on trade with the free exercise of their different religions.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. European

A. European Turkey has four capital rivers; the Danube, the Niefter and the Nieper, which have their mouths in the Black Sea, and the Mariza, which crosses Romania, and enters into the Archipelago.

LESSON LXXV.

EUROPEAN TURKEY *continue*

ROMANIA, BULGARIA, BOSNIA, and SERVIA.

Q. How is European Turkey divided?

A. It is generally divided into two parts, one north and the other south, each of which is subdivided into a great number of provinces.

Q. What does the northern contain?

A. It contains ten provinces,—four of which are entirely subject to the Turks,—four who pay them a tribute, and are under their protection,—and two which only belong to them in part.—The four subject to them are, Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Bosnia: the four tributary are, Little Tartary, Bessarabia, Moldavia, and Walachia: the two in which they have only a part, are Croatia and Dalmatia.

Q. How

Q. How are those provinces placed?

A. The four first are on the same line from east to west,—the four tributary are north of the first, and in the same direction,—the two last are towards the west, along the gulf of Venice.

Q. Where is Romania situated?

A. Part on the coast of the Black Sea, and part on that of the Archipelago. The soil is fruitful, and would be of great produce if properly cultivated; it is not peopled in proportion to its extent.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The capital of that province, and of all the Ottoman empire, is Constantinople, a famous city, and the largest in Europe; it was founded by Constantine the Great, the first Christian emperor, in 326; it is the residence of the Mufli, and the seat of the Greek patriarch; it is situated on the strait which joins the Black Sea to the sea of Marmora; its port passes for the finest and surest in the world.

Q. What is there remarkable in that city?

A. The seraglio or palace, the ordinary residence of the sultan,—the castle of the seven towers,—and the principal mosque, which was formerly the church of St. Sophia. It has two large suburbs, Pera and Galata. In general the city is ill-built and very dirty.

Q. What other cities are there in Romania?

A. The

A. The chief are Adrianople, on the Mariza, an agreeable city, and well situated, where the Grand Signior sometimes holds his court,—and Gallipoli, a large and rich city, situated on the strait which joins the sea of Marmora to the Archipelago, at the entrance of which there are two castles, called the Dardanelles, which defend the entrance; one is in Europe, and the other in Asia.

Q. Where is Bulgaria situated?

A. It is a very large province, situated south of the Danube,—it extends as far as the mouth of that river in the Black Sea, on the east side of the river. Most part of the inhabitants are Christian, subject to the patriarch of Constantinople. They have very little trade, and their riches consist mostly in their herds. The principal cities are, Sophia, the capital, a large city, but not populous; Nicopoli, on the Danube; Varna and Silistria, which are fortified. Near these two last cities the Christians lost two memorable battles, in 1396 and 1444. After the last, the sages of Greece, foreseeing the ruin of the Eastern empire, retired into Italy,—and thus were sciences introduced into the west.

Q. Where is Servia?

A. Servia is a province of moderate extent, situated west of Bulgaria. It is a fruitful soil, but badly cultivated, and thinly peopled. The capital is Belgrade, on the confluence of the Save

and Danube. This city, after having been long in the possession of Austria, was given up to the Turks by the last treaty, in 1739; but the fortifications were demolished. There is also the fortress of Semendria, on the Danube; and Passarowitz, where the treaty was stipulated in 1718.

Q. What is Bosnia?

A. It is a province situated west of Servia, a mountainous country, producing little. They have a few silver mines. The house of Austria had part of it, but abandoned it by the last treaty. Its capital is Bagnaluc, a large and strong city, the residence of a Turkish governor: there is the fortress of Jassy, near Croatia,—and Serajo, a trading city.

LESSON LXXVI.

EUROPEAN TURKEY *continued.*

LITTLE TARTARY, BESSARABIA, MOLDAVIA,
WALACHIA, CROATIA, *and* DALMATIA.

Q. How is Little Tartary situated?

A. It is situated between Russia, on the north, and the Black Sea, on the south;—it is the most eastern province of European Turkey:—it is called Little to distinguish it from Great Tartary,
in

in Asia,—it is separated into northern and southern divisions, the latter forming the peninsula of Crimea,—the inhabitants have the same origin,—they are all Mahometans; the southern division produces little,—the Nogais Tartars, who inhabit it, are vagabonds, accustomed to plunder their neighbours,—they have no other habitations but those which they draw after them,—they live chiefly on the produce of their flocks, and are mostly on horseback.

Q. To whom is it subject?

A. The inhabitants of the southern division are subject to a prince called the Chan,—he is allied, or rather vassal to the Grand Sultan, and is obliged to take up arms in his defence. One of these princes having made incursions on the territories of Russia, the Czarina Ann, in 1736, sent an army into Little Tartary, which ransacked almost all the country.

Q. What change has happened in its political affairs?

A. By the last treaty between Russia and the Porte, the Chan of Little Tartary has been acknowledged independent of the Turkish empire, and has put himself under the protection of the Empress of Russia, who, with the consent of the Chan, took possession of the Crimea.

Q. What cities are there in Crimea?

A. The principal towns are, Bascaferai, the capital, and residence of the Chan,—Precop,

T

a fortress

fortress on the isthmus of that name; and Caffa, a sea-port, on the Black Sea, a trading city belonging to the Turks.

Q. What is Bessarabia?

A. It is situated between the mouths of the Danube and that of the Nieper; it is inhabited by the Oczakow Tartars, and those of Budziac; they serve as auxiliary troops to the Turks, who are masters of the principal cities of that province; those cities are Oczakow and Begorod, both sea-ports, and fortified: there is also Bender, where Charles XII. retired after the battle of Pultowa, in 1709.

Q. What is Moldavia and Walachia?

A. They are two large provinces that lie between Poland, Transylvania, and the Danube; the soil is good, and produces wine; their horses are held in esteem; the inhabitants follow the Greek religion.

Q. How are those provinces governed?

A. Each of these provinces is governed by its particular prince, called Vaivode, or Hospodar; he is chosen by the Grand Signior, and is obliged to pay him an annual tribute, and take arms for him when ordered.

Q. Which are the capitals of those provinces?

A. The capital of Moldavia is Jassy, on the Pruth, the residence of the Vaivode; there is also the fortress of Choczim. The capital of Walachia,

chia, is Tergovisk; the hospodar resides at Bucarest, a fortified place.

Q. What is Croatia?

A. Croatia lies west of Bosnia, along the gulf of Venice; it abounds in wine and oil,—the western part, which is much the largest, belongs to the house of Austria,—and the eastern, to the Turks; the inhabitants of Austrian Croatia follow the Greek religion, and are good soldiers,—their governor has the title of Ban,—the capital is Carlstadt, a fortified place, the residence of the governor; and the capital of Turkish Croatia is Vihitz, also fortified. Near Croatia there is a little province called Morlaquie, situated on the coast, which belongs to the Venetians,—its capital is Segna, a bishoprick, the inhabitants are a robust set of men, and good soldiers.

Q. What is Dalmatia?

A. Dalmatia was formerly a kingdom; it is situated on the gulf of Venice; it produces grain, wine and oil; it belongs to three powers, and consequently divided into as many parts.

Q. Which are those parts?

A. Venetian Dalmatia, in the north,—Zara is its capital, an archbishoprick and sea-port; it has also Sebenico, a bishoprick, with a fortification. Turkish Dalmatia, in the east, where we find Mostar, a large, fortified city, the residence of the Baessa; and Ragusian Dalmatia, in the south.

Q. What is observed of the latter?

T 2

A. It

A. It forms a small republick, governed almost in the same manner as Venice; it maintains itself free, by paying a tribute to the Venetians, to the Turks, to the Emperor, and to the Pope; its capital is Ragusa, a bishoprick and sea-port; it is a large trading city, but subject to earthquakes. The island of Méléda, near the coast, belongs to the republick.

LESSON LXXVII.

EUROPEAN TURKEY *in the South.*

Q. Where is Southern Turkey?

A. Southern Turkey in Europe, is that country known by the name of Greece, and situated south of Servia and Bulgaria, has the Archipelago on the east, the Mediterranean on the south, and the gulf of Venice on the west. Though the air of this country is wholesome, and the soil fertile, it is nevertheless at present ill cultivated, and thinly peopled;—this proceeds from the tyrannical treatment with which the Greek Christians are used by the Turks.

Q. How is it divided?

A. It

A. It is divided into two principal parts, which are, the *terra firma*, and the islands dependent on it. The continent of Greece, independent of the island, contains six provinces, two of which are in the north; those are Macedonia and Albania; two in the middle, Epirus and Theffaly; and two in the south, Livadia and the Morea.

Q. What is Macedonia?

A. Macedonia, formerly a kingdom, is situated west of Romania; its capital is Saloniki, at the extremity of the gulf of that name: it is a large ancient city, and a place of great trade: the Greeks have an archbishop there. In this province is Mount Santo, in a peninsula, and inhabited only by Grecian monks.

Q. Where is Albania?

A. It is situated between Macedonia and the gulf of Venice,—the former on the east, and the latter on the west. It is known for the warlike disposition of its natives; it was the country of the famous Scanderberg, who gained twenty-two battles over the Turks. The capital city is Scutari, a large and populous city, the residence of the Turkish bashaw: the other chief cities of this province are, Durazzo and Valona; both sea-ports.

Q. What is Theffaly?

A. Theffaly is in the middle of southern Turkey in Europe; it abounds in wine and fruits;

its capital is Janua, a large and well-peopled city, in the middle of a lake; there is also the archbishoprick of Larissa.

Q. What is Epirus?

A. Epirus lays opposite the narrowest part of the gulph of Venice; it was formerly a kingdom: its principal cities are, Larta, a sea-port, belonging to the Venetians, and Delphino, where the Turkish bassa resides.

Q. Where is Livadia?

A. It is situated south of Theffaly; it is tolerably well peopled: the city of Livadia is the capital, which is large and has a good trade:—There is also Lephante, on a gulf of the same name, a strong town, famous for a victory gained by the Christians over the Turks, in 1571.

Q. What is Morea?

A. It is a peninsula, joined to the continent by the isthmus of Corinth; its capital is Patras, an archbishoprick and trading city; there are also Modon, Napoli de Romania, Corinth, Malvezia, noted for its excellent wine, and Cape Metapan. The people of Moca are called Maniotes, who form a republick in the mountains, and preserve their independence, by paying a tribute to the Turks.

Q. How are the Turkish islands divided?

A. They are denominated under two classes: the first comprehends the islands of the Archipelago, east of *Terra Firma*; and the second the
isles

isles at the entrance of the gulf of Venice, on the west.

Q. Which are those of the Archipelago?

A. Those that are found in the eastern part of the Mediterranean sea, between the continent and the coasts of Asia; they may be subdivided into large and small; the first are those of Candia and Negropont; the second are in great number.

Q. What is the island of Candia?

A. It is one of the largest in the Mediterranean, situated south of the Morea; it is a very wholesome air, and a fruitful soil, abounding in wine, fruits, and sugar; they also furnish woollen and silk. It was formerly called Crete: it was taken in the ninth century by Candax, the Saracen chief, who gave it his name: the Venetians took it from the Saracens, but the Turks made themselves masters of it about the middle of the last century; the Venetians had preserved three small fortresses in it, which they lost in 1715. The capital is Candia, an archbishoprick of the Greek church; it is a sea-port and fortified. This place is famous for a siege, which it sustained against the Turks, for three years, in the seventeenth century. The other cities are Retino, and Canée, a sea-port.

Q. What is the island of Negropont?

A. It stands east of Livadia, and is separated from it by a very narrow strait, which has an extraordinary tide; the flux and reflux appears several times in the day, without any regularity: this island

produces cotton; they have marble quarries, and amiantus stone, of which they make an incombustible flax; it belonged to the Venetians, but Mahomet II. took it from them in 1469; the capital of the island is Negropont, on the strait; it is a large trading city, and a well-fortified seaport, having a communication with the continent by a stone bridge, and a draw-bridge, which they raise for the passage of ships.

Q. Which are the small islands of the Archipelago?

A. The principal, for their extent and fertility, are Milo and Stalimene.

Q. What are the islands in the west?

A. Near the gulf of Venice, and towards the west, there are four principal islands, which are, Corfu, Cephalonia, Santa Maura, and Zante; they abound in wine and fruits, and belong to the Venetians.

Q. Which is the chief of these islands?

A. Corfu, situated at the entrance of the gulf of Venice; the capital is Corfu, an archbishoprick, and a strong place, which serves as a bulwark to the republic: the Turks besieged it in 1716, but were forced to raise the siege: the Venetians erected a statue in honour of general Schulemberg, who had defended it.

SECOND PART.

LESSON LXXVIII.

General Idea of ASIA.

Q. **W**HERE is Asia situated?

A. Asia is the largest and the richest division of the ancient continent; it is situated east of Europe, from which it is separated by the sea of Asoph, the Don and the Duina.

Q. What are its boundaries?

A. It has the Frozen Ocean on the north; the Pacific Ocean on the east; the Indian Ocean on the south; the Red Sea, the Archipelago, and Europe on the west.

Q. What is its general produce?

A. It produces every thing that is rich; such as gold, silver, gems, pearls, silk and cotton, besides some other things natural to that soil, which do not grow well in any other country;
such

such as all sorts of spices, aromatic herbs, tea and coffee.

Q. What animals have they?

A. They have many ferocious animals; such as lions, leopards, tigers, rhinoceros, &c. which inhabit the deserts of Asia. There are, besides two species of animal extremely useful, the elephant and the camel.

Q. What are the advantages that Asia can boast of?

A. It was in Asia that the first man was created: it was there that our Saviour redeemed the world. It was also in Asia that the principal religions, and the most ancient monarchies were founded.

Q. Which was the first of those monarchies?

A. The first which history mentions, was that of the Babylonians or Assyrians, which was founded by Nimrod or Belus, 2164 years before Christ; and which was considerably increased under the reign of his son Ninus and Queen Semiramis.

Q. Who was their last king?

A. Sardanaple, against whom Arbaces, one of his officers, revolted, and gave the monarchy of Assyria to the Medes, who remained in possession of it till the reign of Astyages, 896 years before Jesus Christ.

Q. How came it that the monarchy fell to the Persians?

A. Mandane,

A. Mandane, daughter of Astyages, married Cambyfes, king of Perfia. This marriage gave birth to Cyrus, one of the greateft kings mentioned in hiftory. Cyrus was fucceeded by his fon Cambyfes, after whose death an impoftor having taken poffeffion of the kingdom, feven of the principal nobles of Perfia killed him, and gave the monarchy to Darius, fon of Hyftafpes, 522 years before Jefus Chrift. The laft king of Perfia was Darius Codoman, who was overcome by Alexander the Great, king of Macedonia; and thus that monarchy paffed from the Perfians to the Grecians, 330 years before Jefus Chrift.

Q. What happened after the death of Alexander?

A. The extenfive countries he had conquered, and which were divided among his generals, fell, in great part, into the hands of the Romans, who laid the foundation of the laft and moft powerful of the ancient monarchies.

Q. What is the prefent ftate of Afia in that refpect?

A. At prefent Afia has no general nor fuperior monarchy; but is divided into feveral ftates, governed by fovereigns independent of each other, fome of whom are very powerful. The chief of thofe fovereigns are, the grand fultan, the empress of Rufsia, the king of Perfia, the great mogul, the emperors of China and Japan.

To

To these may be added, the kan of the Tartars, and the scherif of Mecca.

Q. How are those states governed?

A. They are all governed monarchically, and even in a despotic manner. There are no republics in Asia, which proceeds from the servile and supine disposition of the inhabitants.

Q. Which are the predominant religions in Asia?

A. The Mâhometan and the Pagan; there are, nevertheless, a great number of Jews; the Christian religion of the Greek persuasion predominates in the territories belonging to Russia.

Q. What is further to be remarked?

A. We observe Mount Taurus, which crosses a part of Asia from west to east. There is also a lake called the Caspian Sea, situated east of the Black Sea. This lake is eight hundred leagues in circumference; several great rivers discharge themselves into it, without any visible issue; nevertheless, its waters are never higher at one time than at another, which gives reason to presume, that it has an invifible communication either with the Mediterranean, or rather the ocean.

Q. How is Asia divided?

A. Into two principal parts; *Terra Firma* and the surrounding islands, which are separate and independent states.

Q. What does *Terra Firma* contain?

A. It

A. It comprehends Asiatic Turkey and Persia in the west; Arabia and India in the south; China in the east, and great Tartary in the north.

Q. Which are the Asiatic islands?

A. Those islands lie all in the Indian sea, are distinguished into six classes, the Japan islands, the Ladronne islands, the Philippines, the Moluques, the Sunda islands, and the Maldives; to which is joined the island of Ceylon. All these islands are placed from east to west, in the order we have here named them.

LESSON LXXIX.

Of ASIATIC TURKEY.

Q. WHAT is Asiatic Turkey?

A. We understand by Asiatic Turkey all the provinces of the Ottoman empire situated in Asia; and in the western part, having the black sea on the north; Persia on the east; Arabia on the south; and the Mediterranean on the west.

Q. How is it divided?

A. Into six provinces; Natolia, Syria, Diarbeck, Turcomania, Georgia, and the islands dependent

pendant of Turkey. The governors of all those provinces are called Bassas or Beglierbeys.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The established religion is the Mahometan; but there are great numbers of Greek Christians and Schismatics.

Q. What are their rivers?

A. The two largest are the Tigris and the Euphrates, which take their rise in Turcomania, cross the Diarbeck, then unite their waters, and fall into the gulf of Persia, in the south.

Q. Where is Natolia?

A. It advances in the form of a peninsula from east to west, between the Black Sea and the Archipelago. The air is temperate, and the soil excellent. It was formerly a rich and populous country, but now in several parts almost barren, which proceeds from the nature of the government, and the plague, which often visits them. The inhabitants live in ignorance and slavery.—The Europeans, especially the English, French, and Dutch, trade considerably on the coasts of that province. They export hides, cotton, silk, drugs and carpets. The ports where this trade is carried on, are called the Levant, and there the Europeans keep consuls for the protection of trade.

Q. How is Natolia divided?

A. Into four provinces; Natolia proper, in the west; Amasia, in the north; Aladulia, in the east;

east; and Caramania, in the south: each of these provinces has its particular governor. The capital of Natolia proper, is Chiutaye, a large city, the ordinary residence of the Beglierbey.

besides that there is Burse, the ancient capital of the Ottoman empire; and Smyrna, a sea-port, a very trading city, reckoned the first in the Levant. In this province are found the ruins of many cities famous in history, such as Troy, Ephesus, and Nicea. We shall speak of those cities in the article of ancient geography.

Q. Which is the capital of Amasia?

A. The capital bears the name of the province; it is a populous city: there is also Trapezonde, an ancient city on the Black Sea, and the residence of a Greek archbishop. It was formerly the capital of the empire of Trebizonde.

Q. Which is the capital of Aladulia?

A. Marat, the residence of the Bassa.—There is also the city of Malathia, a Greek archbishoprick.

Q. Which is the capital of Caramania?

A. Cogny, a large and ancient city; there is also a sea-port, called Satalia.

Q. Where is Diarbeck situated?

A. Between Persia, on the east; and Natolia, on the west; it is a fruitful soil, but ill cultivated: their principal trade is cotton and morocco. Some authors pretend, that in this province was the garden of Eden, and decide the place

place to have been that were the Tigris and Euphrates unite their streams.

Q. How is Diarbeck divided ?

A. Into three parts ; Diarbeck proper, in the north ; Yerac, in the south ; and Curdistan, towards the east : the capital of Diarbeck proper is Diabestir, a large and trading city, the residence of the Bassa. There is also Mosul, an ancient city on the Tigris, which has its particular governor.

Q. What cities are there in Yerac ?

A. Bagdad, on the Tigris, a large and fortified city ; and Bassora, on the Euphrates, a sea-port, in the gulf of Persia, and a place of great trade. Bagdad is built on the ruins of the city of Selseucia, seven leagues from ancient Babylon ; the Persians go there in pilgrimage to visit the tomb of Ali, Mahomet's son in law.

Q. What is Cardistan ?

A. It is an extensive province, inhabited by a set of people called Curdes, who live by rapine, and the produce of their flocks. Some of them obey the grand Signior, others private princes, and a third lead an independent and vagabond life. The only considerable city in this province is Betlis, a strong place, the residence of the principal emir, or prince of the Curdes.

LESSON LXXX.

Of SYRIA.

Q. WHERE is Syria situated?

A. It is situated south of Natolia; it extends along the coast of the Mediterranean, to the frontiers of Egypt. It is a fruitful country, and would be of great produce were it not for the supineness of its inhabitants, who only cultivate as much as is necessary for their support.

Q. How is Syria divided?

A. Into three provinces; Syria proper, in the north; Phenicia, in the middle; and Judea, or the Holy Land, in the south. Syria had formerly its particular kings, beginning with Seleucus, one of the generals of Alexander the Great, to whom it devolved, after the demise of that prince, down to Antiochus XIII. who was vanquished by the Romans, under whom it continued as a province for a considerable time.

Q. Who possessed it after them?

A. The emperors of Greece; after them the Saracens; and in 1516, Selim, the first emperor of the Turks, took possession of it, after having defeated the Saracens.

U

Q. Which

Q. Which is the capital of Syria proper?

A. Aleppo is the capital of all the province: it is a large and populous city, the residence of the bafsa; is a place of great trade, where several nations keep consuls. Their principal productions are filk, stuffs, mohair, gall-nuts, and soap.

Q. What other cities are there?

A. The most considerable are Antiocha, on the Orontes, the ancient capital of Syria; and Alexandretta, a sea-port,

Q. Which is the capital of Phenicia?

A. Damascus, situated near mount Libanus, a very ancient city, which trades greatly in filk, steel, wine and fruits. It was formerly the residence of the caliphs, or emperors of the Saracens.

Q. What do you observe of Mount Libanus?

A. That it is famous for the cedars which grow there; it is now inhabited by a great number of schismatic Christians, who call themselves Maronites, and who have their patriarch.

Q. What other cities are there in Phenicia?

A. Syrian Tripoli, a sea-port; Sour, and Said, two cities renowned in history, but which are now almost in ruins.

Q. What is the actual state of Judea?

A. Judea, or the Holy Land, was anciently a fertile country, abounding in every thing, and well

well peopled, but at present deserted and barren. The country is watered from north to south, by the river Jordan, which falls into the Dead Sea,—the name given to a lake of bituminous water situated in the valley where Sodom and Gomorrah formerly stood.

Q. Which is the capital of Judea?

A. Jerusalem, surnamed the Holy City, formerly of great renown; but which now retains but very little of its ancient splendour. It was formerly the capital of the kingdom of Judah; it was taken by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, 599 years before Christ; and afterwards by Titus, the Roman emperor, in the year 70, after a long and famous siege.

Q. Who rebuilt it after that?

A. The emperor Adrian, in 139, and named it Elia-Capitolina; but Constantine the Great, having embraced the Christian religion, built several new edifices, and restored it to its former name. It belonged after that to the emperor of Greece, and was taken, with all Judea, by the Saracens, in the seventh century, who remained in possession of it till the time of the crusades.

Q. What were the crusades?

A. In the eleventh century, the Christians of the west entered into a confederacy; and, from a motive of religion, engaged a war, in order to recover the Holy Land. In the first of those

was Godfrey de Bouillon, chief of the crusaders, made a conquest of the Holy Land, and was crowned king of Jerusalem, in 1099; but his successors soon lost the fruits of his conquests.

Q. What success had the Christians in the second crusade?

A. They were very unfortunate; the princes disagreed, and distempers destroyed their armies; in short, Saladin, sultan of Egypt, and Seraf, his successor, drove them entirely out of the Holy Land in 1291, and made themselves masters of Jerusalem, and St. John of Acre.

Q. What do you remark of Jerusalem?

A. It is famous for the great concourse of pilgrims, (though less in number than formerly) who go there yearly to visit the Holy Land, &c. The principal edifices are the sepulchre, built on the spot where Jesus Christ was interred; and a mosque, built on the site where formerly stood the temple of Solomon. There are also some convents of Greek and Latin monks.

Q. What other cities are there in Judea?

A. The principal cities are Joppa, Gaza, and St. John of Acre, all sea-ports. There are also the boroughs of Bethlehem and Nazareth, renowned in Christian history.

LESSON

LESSON LXXXI.

ASIATIC TURKEY *continued.*

TURCOMANIA, GEORGIA, and the ISLANDS.

Q. WHERE is Turcomania?

A. It is situated between Persia, on the east, and Georgia, on the west; the country is mountainous, but has good pasture lands, on which they feed great numbers of horses and camels. It takes its name from the word *turc.* The inhabitants are called Armenians, and profess Christianity, of the Greek persuasion. They are a laborious people, great travellers, and given to commerce, in which they excel.

Q. What is remarked of Turcomania?

A. The Armenians have a particular devotion for a place called Mount Ararat, where it is said that Noah's ark stopped after the flood.

Q. How is Turcomania divided?

A. Into two parts; the western, belonging to the Grand Sultan,—and the eastern, of which the king of Persia made a conquest, in 1736, and which the last treaty has confirmed to him.

Q. What cities are there in Turcomania?

A. In the western part there is Erzerum, the capital, situated near the source of the Euphrates; it is a large and populous city: there is also

Cars, a fortified place, towards the east. In Eastern Turcomania, there is Erivan, the capital, which is tolerably well fortified.

Q. Where is Georgia situated?

A. It is situated between the Black Sea, on the west,—and the Caspian Sea, on the east. The country produces all that is necessary to life, but has little trade; it also produces silk and furs; the inhabitants profess the Greek religion, but are ignorant, and live in disorder. The women pass for the finest in the world, and are sold for slaves.

Q. To whom does Georgia belong?

A. It is subject to several private princes, either under the protection of the Grand Sultan or the king of Persia, and are tributary to them; for which reason it is divided into two parts, as said before. The western part comprehends three provinces; Mingrilia, Gurriel, and Immirrette: the only considerable city is Savatopoli, the capital of Mingrilia, on the Black Sea; the other two provinces bear the names of their capitals.

Q. Which is the capital of the eastern division?

A. The capital of Eastern Georgia is Teflis, in the province of Carduel, a large and fortified city, the most considerable of all Georgia; it is a place of great trade, especially in silk.

Q. What are the Turkish islands in Asia?

A. They

A. They are situated in the Mediterranean, along the coasts of Natolia: the two largest are Cyprus and Rhodes; the island of Cyprus is one of the largest in the Mediterranean, and situated between Natolia, on the north, and Syria, on the south;—the air is unwholesome, but the soil is good, and produces excellent wines and fruits. We import from thence cotton, silk, copper and vitriol. Some of the inhabitants are Mahometans, and others Greek Christians: the latter live in ignorance and idleness.

Q. To whom did the island of Cyprus belong?

A. After having been in the hands of the emperors of Greece, it passed to the family of Lusignan, with the title of kingdom, in 1191. The heiress of that house married Lewis, duke of Savoy, in 1458: the Venetians took it some time after,—and, in 1571, it was taken from them by the emperor Selim II.

Q. Which is the capital of the island?

A. Nicosia, a large, populous, and well-fortified city, the residence of the bassa, or governor-general of the whole island, and the seat of a Greek archbishop. The other large cities are, Famagusta, a sea-port, and fortified city, before which the Turks lost 80,000 men in a siege; and Limisso, where the knights of Malta retired after the loss of the holy-land.

Q. Where is Rhodes situated?

A. It lies west of the island of Cyprus, and near the coast of Caramania. It is in a pure and wholesome air; the soil abounds in fruits and pasture. The inhabitants manufacture carpets and camlets. This island, though small, was famous during more than two centuries, on account of its belonging to the knights of Malta.

Q. How were those knights first called?

A. They were called the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem; the order had been instituted at the time of the crusades, to give succour to the pilgrims who were to visit the holy-land. It was at first a religious, but soon became a military order; a great many gentlemen entered into it, and the knights distinguished themselves in the defence of that sacred place.

Q. What happened to them after?

A. After the ill-success of the crusades, they, and all the Christians, were forced to abandon Jerusalem and St. John of Acre, in 1290. They at first took shelter at Limisso, and afterwards in Rhodes, of which they took possession in 1310. Soliman II. exasperated against the knights for the frequent excursions they made against his subjects, attacked them with an army of 200,000 men, and made himself master of the capital, after a long and obstinate siege. That prince, admiring their bravery, gave them an honourable capitulation, and furnished them with ships to

retire to Italy, where they took possession of the island of Malta, as said before.

Q. Which is the capital?

A. The capital of all the island is Rhodes, a sea-port, and strong place, where the Greeks have an archbishop.

Q. What other small islands are there along the coast?

A. Among those on the coasts of Natolia, we remark Samos and Patmos, Mytelene and Scio, remarkable for its excellent wine.

LESSON LXXXII.

ARABIA.

Q. WHERE is Arabia situated?

A. It is situated near Africa, to which it communicates by the isthmus of Suez. It is bounded by Syria and Diarbeck, on the north; by the gulf of Persia, on the east; by the Indian Sea, on the south; and by the Red Sea, on the west.—The first who inhabited it were the Ishmaelites, descendants of Ishmael, son of Abraham. They are chiefly known in history by the name of Arabs or Saracens. The false prophet, Mahomet established

established his religion there, and at the same time laid the foundation of the empire of the Arabs, in 622; and his successor, who took the name of Caliph, made great conquests in Asia and Africa. The caliphs of the dynasty of the Om-miades fixed the seat of their empire at Damascus; and the Abbassides, who succeeded them, transported it to Bagdad.

Q. How was that empire destroyed?

A. It was first greatly weakened by the sultans of Egypt, and after them the Turks abolished it entirely, by the conquest they made of all the country held in possession by the caliphs.

Q. To whom does Arabia belong at present?

A. The greatest part is under the dominion of the Grand Sultan, or of some private princes, his vassals. The remainder is subject to the scharif of Mecca or Medina. Some of the people live in cities, and apply themselves to trade and sciences; others, called Bedouins, lead a vagabond life, committing continual depredations, and acknowledge no other sovereign than their chief.

Q. How is Arabia divided?

A. It is generally divided into three parts,—Arabia Petrea, in the north; Arabia Deserta, in the east; and Arabia Felix, in the south. Arabia Petrea takes its name from its ancient capital; the country is almost a desert, and uncultivated; its few inhabitants are a tribe of Bedouins. Its principal

principal cities are Erac, formerly Petrea, the capital, towards the north ; and El-Tor, a seaport on the Red Sea, opposite to which it is thought the Israelites crossed that sea in their flight from Egypt.

Q. What is Arabia Deserta ?

A. It is thus called on account of the deserts covered with burning sands, which are met with there ; it is inhabited by the Bedouins, who deal in a breed of horses much esteemed.

Q. How do people travel in that country ?

A. They assemble in large bodies, called caravans, that they may be able to defend themselves against the Arabs ; and they carry with them all their provisions. The only remarkable city is Ana, on the Euphrates, towards the west, the capital of all the country ; it was formerly a strong trading city, but has been almost entirely ruined by the Turks.

Q. What is Arabia Felix ?

A. It bears that name, because it is much more fruitful and populous than the two others : it advances in the form of a peninsula, between the Red Sea and the gulf of Persia. Its principal productions are gums, aromatics,—such as myrrh, incense and aloes,—besides several medicinal drugs, and the best coffee. On the coasts they meet with pearls and coral ; and in general they have a brisk trade.

Q. How is Arabia Felix divided ?

A. Into

A. Into northern and southern divisions ; the former is subject to the scherif of Mecca and Medina ; and the latter is divided between the grand Sultan and several private princes.

Q. What do you mean by the scherif of Mecca?

A. He is a prince greatly respected by all the Mahometans, because he is a descendant of Mahomet ; he receives great presents, and is the protector of the pilgrims against the Bedouin Arabs.

Q. What cities are there in Arabia Felix ?

A. The principal cities are Mecca and Medina. Mecca is large and well-built, the ordinary residence of the scherif, and the place where Mahomet was born. All his sectaries are obliged, once in their lives, to visit the principal mosque of this city. Medina, towards the north, is the place where Mahomet is interred in a superb mosque ; his coffin is supported by delicate columns of white marble, surrounded by a balustrade of silver, where the Mahometans go, out of devotion.

Q. What cities are there in the southern division?

A. They have Mocha, in the kingdom of Yemen ; it is a sea-port, to which most Europeans resort to purchase coffee. There is also Adca, a sea-port ; Mascate, towards the east, capital of the kingdom of that name, which is governed by its own sovereign ; and Elcatif, a sea-port.

LESSON

LESSON LXXXIII.

PERSIA.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Persia?

A. The kingdom of Persia is bordered on the north, by Great Tartary and the Caspian sea; by the territories of the grand mogul, on the east; by the gulf of Persia, on the south; and by Asiatic Turkey, on the west. The air is either hot, or temperate, according as the provinces are more or less in the south. The soil, in general, is fruitful, and cultivated; it produces rice and other grain in abundance, besides wines, which are held in great estimation.

Q. What do they export?

A. Great quantities of wrought and raw silks; pearls, which they find on the coasts; carpets, and raw and printed cottons: formerly the Europeans imported all their silk from Persia, the art of making it there having been brought from China: in the seventh century, the emperor Justinian had silk-worms eggs brought to Constantinople; and they were, by that method, introduced into Europe.

Q. What is the kingdom of Persia?

A. What

A. What is now called by that name, is only a part of the ancient monarchy of Persia, destroyed by Alexander the Great, and which afterwards made part of the Roman empire, as observed before.

Q. Who first possessed that kingdom?

A. It first belonged to the successors of Alexander the Great, and after them to the Parthians, a warlike people; Arsaces and his successors were often at war with the Romans; the Parthians were driven out of it by Artaxerxes, a native of Persia; who, in 226, founded the second monarchy of Persia, which subsisted four hundred years: it was after that alternately taken and retaken by the Saracens and Tartars; but the latter were entirely deprived of it by Ismael, a descendant of the sophies, in 1514.

Q. What do you observe of Ismael's descendants.

A. They reigned in Persia till the commencement of the present century. The most renowned were, Schah Abbas, surnamed the Great, and Schah Thamas, the last of that race, and under whose reign there was a revolution.

Q. What was that revolution?

A. Thamas Kouli Khan, an usurper, put the last of that family to death in 1736, invaded the kingdom of Persia, conquered several provinces from the Turks and the great mogul, reigned with great glory, and was assassinated by one of his relations

relations in 1748. After his death several princes contended for the crown of Persia, without gaining any advantage over each other; so that the kingdom is now distracted by civil wars, and has no decided sovereign.

Q. What do you remark of Persia?

A. That the government is monarchical and despotic; the inhabitants profess Mahometanism, of the sect of Ali, Mahomet's son-in-law, which differs from the Turks, who follow that of Omar.

Q. How is it divided?

A. It may be divided into two principal parts; one north, and the other south of Mount Taurus; they together compose thirteen great provinces.—The capital of all Persia is Ispahan, in the province of Irac Agemi, the usual residence of the sovereign. It is a very large city, but thinly peopled: the king's palace, and the great place or square called the Meidan, are almost the only things remarkable.

Q. What other cities are there in the north?

A. Tauris, in the province of Aderbijan, a large, rich, and trading city; Ferabad, where there is a royal palace; and Derbent, a strong city and sea-port on the Caspian sea.

Q. What cities are there in the south?

A. There is Schiras, situated in a province which produces excellent wine; and Candahar, a strong place towards the east.

Q. What

Q. What is met with on the coasts of the gulf of Persia?

A. We find Gamron, or Bender Abassi, a seaport, frequented by the Europeans, where they carry on a great trade. There are also the islands of Ormus and Bahrem; the Portuguese had made themselves masters of Ormus, and had fortified it; but Schah Abbas took it from them in the last century. The finest pearls are found near the island of Bahrem.

Q. What people are met with towards the east?

A. In the province of Candahar in the east, there is a set of people called Afgans, distinguished for their bravery; it was by means of their revolt that Thamas Kouli Khan succeeded in usurping the throne.

LESSON LXXXIV.

GREAT TARTARY.

Q. WHERE is Great Tartary?

A. It is a large tract of land, thus called to distinguish it from Little Tartary, of which we have already

already spoken. It is situated in the north of Asia, and comprehends near one half of it, yet it has been entirely unknown till of late years. It is bounded on the north, by the Frozen Ocean; by the Eastern Ocean, on the east; by China, India, and Persia, on the south; and by European Russia, on the west. The northern parts are cold, mostly uncultivated, and but little inhabited, being covered with immense forests; but the southern parts are milder, and more productive.

Q. In what do they trade?

A. The principal things we receive from them are furs, ermines, sables, white bear-skins, and black foxes. The best rhubarb in the world grows in the south of Turkey.

Q. What do you observe of the Tartars?

A. Those who dwell near Turkey and Persia in the south, are cruel, lazy, and robbers; they profess the Mahometan religion: those who live towards the north, subsist on the produce of their herds; they clothe themselves with skins of animals, live under tents, or in covered carriages, and are, for the most part, pagans. All these people were known in ancient history by the name of Scythians; they were renowned for their valour, justice, and frugality. The name of Tartars comes either from a river of that country, or from one of their clans, who, in the thirteenth century, were very powerful, and made great conquests in the south of Asia.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. The four principal rivers are, the Oby, the Jenisea, the Lena, and the Amur: the three first run from south to north, and fall into the Frozen Ocean; the fourth runs from west to east.

Q. How is that country divided?

A. All that vast country is only divided into three parts; Chinese Tartary, Independent Tartary, and Russian Tartary; the two first in the south, and the third takes up all the north, and is as extensive as the other two.

Q. Which is Chinese Tartary?

A. It is the eastern part of Great Tartary, and is subject to the emperor of China, who sends governors there. It is inhabited by different sets of people; the most powerful are the Manchoux, who, in the last century, conquered China: Chiniang is the only remarkable city; it is situated in the province of Manchoux, where we find the tomb of Xunchi, who conquered China.

Q. What is Independent Tartary?

A. It is so called, because it is not subject, like the others, to any foreign prince, but obeys its private masters, the most powerful of whom is called the Great Cham. It is divided into two parts by the Caspian sea: the eastern comprehends Thibet, the Calmucks, the Usbecks, and the Turquestan; in the western, we find Circassia and Daghestan:

Q. What

Q. What is remarked of Thibet ?

A. It is there that the Grand Lama, or high priest of the pagan Tartars resides, for whom they have great veneration. There is a great river, called Gillion, which falls into the Caspian sea. The most considerable city of Independent Tartary is Samarcand, capital of Usbeck Tartary ; it is large, has a good trade, and is situated in a fruitful soil. In this place the famous Tamerlane was born.

Q. What is Russian Tartary ?

A. It contains three grand governments, which are, Siberia, in the north ; and Casan and Astracan, in the south : The emperors of Russia conquered part of that country in the last century ; but the principal establishments were made under the reign of Peter the Great, and his successors. The intent of the Russians was to know the utmost extent of Asia, towards the east ; and to find a road by which they might trade with China, both by sea and land, which point they have attained.

Q. What does Siberia contain ?

A. That government comprehends Siberia proper, in the west ; and Eastern Siberia, which extends as far as the coasts of the ocean. The capital of Siberia proper is Tobolsky, on the river of that name ; it is a large city and an archbishoprick ; it trades with China and India by caravans, which the Russians send there. There is also the city of Jumen, which is fortified. It is to Siberia that the

emperors of Russia send their state-prisoners in exile, and those reprieved from execution.

Q. What are the eastern people of Siberia?

A. Those of the east, but particularly towards the north, live like savages; they are no otherwise subject to Russia than that they pay them an annual tribute in furs. The chief cities there are, Nerfinskoi, or Niptchou, where a treaty of peace was signed between the czar and the emperor of China, in 1689. They have also Kamschatka, a sea-port, in the peninsula of that name. Of late years the Russians have established a colony at Kamschatka, where they build ships, with which they sail in the Eastern ocean.

Q. Which is the capital of the province of Casan?

A. Casan, in the south; it is a large and populous city, and an archbishoprick. The Russians trade there considerably in furs, and timber for building ships.

Q. Where is the province of Astracan?

A. Astracan, which was formerly called a kingdom, is situated near the Caspian sea, and extends along the Wolga; its capital is Astracan, at the mouth of that river; it is an archbishoprick, and a large, trading city. The country abounds in wine and fruits: the inhabitants make a vast quantity of salt; they fish for sturgeon in the Wolga, and it is with the spawn of that fish that they make a much-esteemed dish called caviar.

LESSON LXXXV.

Of INDIA.

Q. WHAT is understood by the word India?

A. Under that denomination is comprehended all those countries situated in the south of Asia, between Great Tartary, in the north; China, on the east; the ocean, on the south; and Persia, on the west. It is a very hot country; but the heat is tempered by the periodical rains, which fertilize the soil. It produces rice, cotton, and fruits of all sorts; there is one peculiar to that country, called the cocoa-nut, produced by the Indian palm-tree; it is very common, and the natives convert it to many uses: the leaves of this tree serve to cover their houses; the tree itself emits a liquor, which, differently prepared, gives milk, wine, and sugar; they extract oil from the kernel of the fruit; and its shell serves to make different vases for the use of their families.

Q. Is it a rich country?

A. India abounds with rich productions. It has mines of gold, silver, and precious stones; they export diamonds, pearls, silk, cotton, linens, and spices, for all which they have a considerable
 X 3 trade.

trade. It is generally called the East Indies, to distinguish it from America, which is called the West.

Q. How was the trade formerly carried on?

A. It was customary for the Arabs to convey the merchandise from India, by the Red Sea, as far as Egypt, where the Europeans, especially the Venetians, came to purchase of them. But the Portuguese having discovered a passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497, found their way there, and brought the merchandise home directly from the spot: but they did not long enjoy that advantage; for the Dutch, some years after, being informed of that discovery, while Portugal was yet subject to Spain, sent ships there, and invaded the greatest part of their establishments. After them the English, French, and other European nations, seeing the advantage of that trade, found means to form settlements there.

Q. What observation do you make on that?

A. We distinguish two sorts of establishments in India. There are places of trade, of which the Europeans are masters, either by conquests or treaties with the sovereigns of the countries; and others, where they only keep factories.

Q. How is India inhabited?

A. The different countries of India are inhabited by three sorts of people; the Europeans, the Indians, or natives, and the Moguls, or Tartars. The Europeans are either Catholics or Protestants,
and

and have made many converts in India; the natives are idolaters, and believe the transmigration of souls; the Moguls are Mahometans.

Q. What rivers are there in India?

A. They have two very capital rivers; the Indus, which gives name to the whole country, and the Ganges. They both run from north to south, and fall by different branches into the ocean.

Q. How is India divided?

A. It is generally divided into three principal countries; the empire of the Grand Mogul towards the north; the Western Peninsula on this side of the Ganges; and the Eastern beyond that river.

LESSON LXXXVI.

INDIA *continued.*

Q. WHAT is the empire of the Mogul?

A. It is a vast and powerful state, situated between Persia on the west, and China on the east. The country is rich; fruitful, and very populous. They live chiefly on rice.

Q. What is remarked on the history of that country?

A. Several conquerors of antiquity, and particularly Alexander the Great, penetrated into India; but after the death of the latter, it was restored to its natural sovereigns. After that, a Tartar, or Mogul prince, named Gengiskhan, subdued part of it, in the thirteenth century; and two hundred years after Timurlenk, or Tamerlane, a native, conquered the remainder; and his descendants laid the foundation of the Mogul empire.

Q. Who is the present sovereign?

A. One of the family of Tamerlane; he professes the religion of Mahomet, of the sect of Omar; he exercises despotism over his subjects, has an immense revenue, and is reputed the richest sovereign in the world: but Thamas Kouli Khan, king of Persia, plundered great part of his riches. He first declared war against the emperor in 1739, and after many successful battles, obliged him to give up the greatest part of his treasures, with three provinces of his empire: among other things, he took from him that famous throne of Tamerlane, which was of solid gold, enriched with the finest oriental stones.

Q. How are the inhabitants distinguished?

A. They may be ranged under three classes; the Bramins, who are either priests or lawyers; the

the Rasbutes, who are foldiers ; and the Banians, who are traders. The emperor is not only sovereign of the Mogul empire, but most of the kings of the two peninsulas are tributary to him. The empire alone is composed of nineteen great provinces ; most of them bear the names of their capitals ; but we shall only speak of the largest and most known cities.

Q. Which is the capital of the Mogul ?

A. Agra, situated in the center of the empire, a very large and rich city, the ordinary residence of the sovereign. Towards the north we find Delhi the former capital, where the emperor has a magnificent palace, in which his treasures were deposited, when Thamas Kouli Khan took that great city almost without resistance. Towards the east is Dacca, on the eastern branch of the Ganges, and near the gulf of Bengal ; it is a trading city : Hughley stands on the same river ; there the Dutch have a considerable factory. There are also two other large cities, Chandernagore and Jagnerat : the latter is the residence of the principal Bramin. In the west there is Tatta, a city which stands on the mouth of the Indus ; where the Portuguese carry on a great trade ; Cambaia, near the gulf of that name ; and also Amadabat and Surat ; the latter is a large, populous, and well fortified city. There we meet with the most precious

precious merchandise of India ; and all the European nations who trade in that part of the world, have factories there.

LESSON LXXXVII.

INDIA *continued.*

Q. WHAT does the western Peninsula of India contain?

A. The kingdoms of Visapour, Golconda and Bisnagar, or the Carnatic, with the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. Besides those, there are several states less extensive, subject to princes who have the title of nabob, or subah. These three kingdoms are inland countries, towards the north ; the two coasts are situated east and west of the Peninsula, and are terminated by Cape Comorin, towards the south.

Q. What is the produce of those countries?

A. In the kingdom of Golconda they have the two richest diamond mines yet discovered ; the finest pearls are found at Cape Comorin ;—and over all the Peninsula they manufacture
printed

printed linens and cottons, held in great esteem. Each of the three kingdoms has its capital, which bears the name of the whole kingdom;—those three cities are large, populous and well built. Their sovereigns are tributary to the Great Mogul.

Q. What do the Europeans possess?

A. The Portuguese have Davan and Diu, two strong places: the latter is situated in an island; they have also the city of Goa. The English have Bombay, a sea-port and trading city. Goa is an archbishoprick and a sea-port, the most considerable of the Portuguese settlements in India. It has a viceroy, and the inquisition is established there. It is in this place that the body of St. Francis Xavier is preserved; he was the first who preached Christianity in India.

Q. What other remarkable cities are there?

A. There is Mazulipatan, in the kingdom of Golconda; a city famous for its trade in printed linens, reputed the best of all India, and where all the trading countries of Europe have factories.

Q. What is found on the coast of Malabar?

A. The Dutch have built forts on that coast, principally at Cochin and Cananore: they trade in spices and other productions of that country. The kingdom of Calicut is also on that coast.

Q. What cities are there on the coast of Coromandel?

A. There

A. There is Madras, or Fort St. George, which belongs to the English; Paliacate and Negapatan, belonging to the Dutch; Pondicherry to the French; and Tranquebar to the Danes: all those cities are fortified. There is also Madura, capital of the province of that name. At Tranquebar the Danes have introduced Lutheran missionaries; and it is the first establishment of that nature which the Protestants have formed in India.

Q. What does the Eastern Peninsula contain?

A. It is situated beyond the Ganges, and is much more extensive than the other: it contains several kingdoms; three in the north, two in the east, and three in the south. The three in the north are Arracan, Ava, and Pegu; their capitals have the same names. The two in the east are Tonquin and Cochin-China. Those in the south are Siam, Cambodia, and Malacca.

Q. What do the Europeans import from that Peninsula?

A. Diamonds, and particularly rubies, which are found in the kingdom of Ava. They purchase also the bezoar-stone, ivory and the perfume of the civet cat. All the natives are idolaters; but the Catholic missionaries who have settled in that country, especially at Cochin-China, have made a great number of proselytes.

Q. What is remarked of the king of Siam?

A. He

A. He sent, in 1684, ambassadors to Lewis XIV. of France, to propose a treaty of commerce between the two nations, and that monarch, in return, sent some to Siam. That compact did not last long; for Constance, prime minister to the king of Siam, having been killed in a riot, the French were obliged to abandon the country. Odia, or Juthia, a large and populous city, and the residence of the sovereign, is the capital of the kingdom.

Q. Where is the kingdom of Malacca situated?

A. It stands on a peninsula, towards the south. The capital is Malacca, a fortified place, and seaport, belonging to the Dutch.

LESSON LXXXVIII.

Of CHINA.

Q. WHERE is China situated?

A. It lays in the most eastern part of Asia, drawing towards the south. This vast empire is bounded by Chinese Tartary; by the Ocean, east and south; and by India and a part of Tartary,

rary, on the west. China is separated from Great Tartary by a wall four hundred leagues long, which was built two thousand years ago, to protect them from the incursions of the Tartars; but it is now become useless, and falls to ruin.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. The climate is wholesome and temperate towards the north; it is very populous; the soil is fruitful, and the best cultivated of all Asia: it is rich in gold and silver mines, besides other metals. The best tea comes from thence; they make the finest varnish; and their China-ware is much esteemed. They have also the Chinese aloes, the fruit and wood of which are aromatic; they have a root which they call ginseng, which is looked upon by them as an universal remedy; they have also the tallow tree, with the fruit of which they make candles.

Q. What is the history of that country?

A. If we give credit to their own history, it is one of the most ancient monarchies in the world; for they pretend to have had, without interruption, two hundred and thirty-seven emperors; the famous Gengiskhan, a Tartar prince, undertook the conquest of China in 1275; he subdued part of it, but his successors were forced to abandon it. About four hundred years after that, the Mancheoux Tartars, commanded by Xunchi, their sovereign, penetrated into China, in 1644; —made themselves masters of the whole empire with

with the most astonishing facility, and have preserved it ever since.

Q. How is China governed?

A. By a sovereign, who bears the title of emperor, and whose power is absolute. Its police, or civil government, is conducted in the most admirable manner. The emperor's principal officers are called mandarins; they have divers functions, and are separated into different classes, through which they must pass. There are gown mandarins, who are literary men, such as counsellors, presidents, &c.; and sword mandarins, who are generals and governors of provinces.

Q. What is observed of the Chinese?

A. That they are sensible and witty, and great lovers of arts and sciences. Printing, artillery, and the mariner's compass were in use with them before they were known in Europe. They write in columns from top to bottom of the page. They have no alphabet, but make use of certain characters which express a whole word; for which reason it is very difficult to learn to read and write in their language.

Q. What is their religion?

A. They have two religions in China,—that of the philosophers, or learned men, which is that of the king and the court; and the pagan religion, which is that of the people. That of the philosophers, or literati, consists in the belief of an only God; they honour and revere
their

their deceased kings and doctors, but principally Confucius, a famous philosopher and legislator of China, who lived five hundred years before Jesus Christ. The paganism of the people is superstitious and absurd: their priests are called Bonzes, and pretend to be magicians. We also find in China both Jews and Mahometans.

Q. Are there no Christian missionaries in China?

A. Under the pretence of teaching mathematics, some missionaries, especially Jesuits, had introduced themselves into China, and made a great number of converts; the emperor who supported them being dead, his successor expelled them; nevertheless, some few have entered since; but their liberty is much more restrained than formerly. They had been accused of uniting the Christian worship to that of Confucius, and tolerating too much the superstitious ceremonies of the people.

Q. What rivers are there in China?

A. The two principal rivers are the Hoang, or Yellow River, towards the north; and the Kiang, or Blue River, south of the first: they both run from west to east, and fall into the sea of China. They have several canals, with sluices for interior commerce, the chief of which is the royal canal, which is six hundred leagues long.

Q. How is the empire of China divided?

A. It

A. It is separated into two principal parts, north and south, by the river Kiang; it contains in the whole fifteen great provinces, governed by mandarins. The capital of all the empire is Pe-kin, towards the north, in the province of that name. It is a very large city, extremely populous, and the ordinary residence of the sovereign; it is separated into two parts, one called the ancient city, inhabited by the Tartars, and the other, which has been built since the invasion: in that we see the emperor's palace, which is a very large pile of building,—and several pagods, or magnificent temples; in one of which there is a bell which weighs an hundred and twenty thousand pounds.

Q. What other cities are there in China?

A. Though there are a great number of other cities in that empire, we shall only make remarks on four, which are Singan, Nanking, Canton, and Macao. Singan, on the river Hoei, is a large and fine city; the former emperors of China resided there: it lies in the province of Chen-zi, towards the west. Nanking is situated near the mouth of the river Kiang; it is thought to be the largest city in the world: it is said to be twelve leagues in circumference; there is a tower all of China-ware, which is much admired; it is nine stories high. Canton, in the province of that name, is a very large city, with a good port. It is there where the Europeans carry on the
Y greatest

greatest trade with China. Macao, in the little island of that name, lies west of Canton; it is a place of great trade, and well fortified. It belongs to the Portuguese; but they acknowledge the sovereignty of the emperor.

Q. What islands are there on the coast of China?

A. There are several islands on the southern coast which belong to China. The two largest are Formosa and Hainan. Formosa is a large and fruitful island: it was formerly in the possession of the Dutch, who were forced by the Chinese to abandon it about the middle of the last century: they attempted, but in vain, with the aid of some of the natives, to enter in again in 1721. On the east of China we meet with the kingdom of Corea, in a peninsula of the same name, the sovereignty of which is tributary to the emperor.

LESSON LXXXIX.

Of the ASIATIC ISLANDS.

Q. WHERE are the Japan islands situated?

A. They all lay east of China, and are separated from it by a canal, called the Japan Sea; they are in great numbers; the three largest are Nippon, Ximo or Bonza, and Xicoco. The air
of

of those islands is very wholesome and temperate. The industry of the natives renders the soil fruitful in rice and other grain; they are very populous. The Europeans who trade there export their tea, China-wares, and japanned furniture,—besides gold, and a sort of pewter held in great estimation.

Q. Who discovered those islands?

A. The Portuguese, who were thrown upon them by a storm, in 1542, having learned that there were gold mines in the country, returned thither in hopes of forming settlements. The natives have genius, and are lovers of science,—they make it a point of honour to be sober and courageous; they have many habits in opposition to ours. All those islands are subject to an emperor, called Cubo, who is powerful, absolute, and extremely rich.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. They are Pagans; their chief is called Dairo,—he is greatly respected by the people, and had formerly the sovereign authority. There are a great number of monks in those islands. St. Francis Xavier, in 1549, preached the Christian faith among them, and made a great number of converts, so that fourscore years after, no less than eighty thousand Christians were reckoned there. But the emperor having taken offence at the great number of proselytes, excited a persecution against them, and entirely abolished christianity

tianity in his states: he did more,—he forbade, on pain of death, the entrance into his dominions to all Europeans, except the Dutch, who alone trade there; but as soon as they arrive, their ships are sequestered. This constraint, added to the danger of the voyage, is the reason why they send yearly but few ships.

Q. Which is the capital of Japan?

A. The capital of Nippon, and at the same time of the whole empire, is Jeddo, a large and well peopled city, the usual residence of the sovereign. The other remarkable cities are, Meaco, towards the north, where the dairo resides,—and Osaka, a sea-port, in the west.

Q. What is met with in the island of Xicoco?

A. We find Nangasacki, a sea-port, and the only one where the Dutch are permitted to land. The Chinese trade considerably there.

Q. What are the Ladrone islands?

A. They are small islands which lay south of those of Japan; they are in great numbers in that part of the ocean called the Archipelago of St. Laurence: they were discovered, in 1520, by Ferdinand Magellan, a famous navigator; he gave them that name, because he found himself pilfered by the natives. They are in a hot climate, and thinly inhabited, and produce only rice and fruits; the islanders are industrious, and build little boats, called proas, of a curious invention. Several of those islands are subject to Spain,

Spain, who call them the Mariannas, from Marianna of Austria, consort of Philip IV. under whose reign those settlements were formed. The largest of those islands is Guan, where the Spaniards have a fort called St. Ignacea, where they keep a garrison, and where the Manilla galleon refreshes on its return from Mexico.

Q. Where are the Philippine islands situated?

A. They lay west of the Ladrones, and south of the coasts of China. They are so numerous, that they reckon twelve hundred of them. Their produce, in general, is excellent fruits: they have some gold and silver mines. The Spaniards export from thence ambergris, tortoise-shell, and some few spices. They were discovered by Ferdinand Magellan, in 1520, who took possession of them in the name of the Spaniards; and, in 1564, he was killed in a combat against the natives. Their name comes from Philip II. who founded a colony there. The Spaniards have still settlements in some of them, and the others are in the hands of their native princes. The largest of them are, Manilla or Luçon, and Tandy, both in the power of Spain; there is also Mindanao, which has its king.

Q. Which is the capital of Manilla?

A. Manilla is the capital of the island, where the Spaniards keep a viceroy; it is a populous and trading city, with a spacious and sure port; it is the staple or store-house of all the merchan-

dize of Asia and America; the inhabitants traffic with the Chinese; they also receive the most precious productions of Mexico and Peru, by a galleon richly loaded, which crosses the South Sea every year. In 1746 that galleon was taken by Admiral Anson, who sailed round the world in quest of it.

Q. What is the island of Tandaye?

A. It lies south of Manilla; it was first discovered by Magellan, and passes for the most pleasant of all the Philippines.

LESSON XC.

ASIATIC ISLANDS *continued.*

Q. WHAT are the Molucca islands?

A. That denomination is given to all the islands situated south of the Philippines, and are divided into great and small. Some of them abound in rice,—but chiefly produce those spices which grow no where else,—such as cloves and nutmegs; they have also aloes and sandal-wood; the natives are black, and idolaters; their principal food is the pith of a tree called sago, of which they make bread.

Q. Who discovered those islands?

A. Ferdinand

A. Ferdinand Magellan, in 1520; he took possession of them for the king of Spain, who afterwards relinquished his rights on them to Portugal; but the Dutch soon expelled the Portuguese, and have been in possession of them ever since 1604. On several of them they have erected forts,—and have, in some measure, subjected the kings of the others by treaties; so that they have entirely monopolized the spice trade of that country.

Q. Which are those called the Great Moluccas?

A. They reckon four, the two largest of which are Celebes and Gilolo. In the island of Celebes, we find the kingdom of Macassar, with its capital of the same name, where the Dutch have a fort; the king is a Mahometan, and his subjects are reputed the most courageous of all India.

Q. Which are the small ones?

A. There are several,—but the principal are Banda and Amboyna; the first produces mace and nutmegs, and the other cloves. They both belong to the Dutch, who have forts and good garrisons there.

Q. What are the Sunda islands?

A. They are islands thus called from the straits of Sunda. They lay west of the Moluccas, and south of the Eastern Peninsula of India; they are three in number, and very large; Borneo, in the east; Sumatra, in the west; and

Java in the south. It is a hot but wholesome country. The natives are blacks, idolaters, or Mahometans. There is a people called Malays, whose tongue is spoken all over India. Borneo is the largest of the Indian islands: it belongs to several sovereigns, the most powerful of whom is the king of Borneo. It produces diamonds, pepper and camphire. The Europeans have no settlements there.

Q. Where is the island of Sumatra?

A. It is separated from Java by the straits of Sunda; it produces pepper and medicinal drugs, and has some gold and silver mines. It is divided between several sovereigns allied to the Dutch, who have some forts on the shore. The most powerful of those kingdoms is Achem, situated in the north of the island, and frequented by Europeans.

Q. What is the island of Java?

A. That island, though the smallest of the three, is nevertheless the most considerable, as the Dutch have their principal settlement there, and that it is the staple for European and Asiatic merchandize. This island is subject partly to the Dutch, and partly to two sovereigns of the country, with whom they are allied; these are the emperor of Mataran and the king of Bantam. The island is very populous; the capital of the Dutch settlements is Batavia, a well-built and rich city, defended by a strong citadel. Batavia

is

is the seat of the sovereign council for the trade of that nation, and the residence of a governor named by the Directors of the East India Company, with the title of general. The company is rich and powerful, it sends every year a great number of ships to Batavia, loaded with European goods, which bring back the most valuable commodities of Asia.

Q. What are the Maldives ?

A. They call by the name of Maldives, a considerable number of small islands placed almost in a line from north to south, opposite the point of the peninsula of Hither India.— They are supposed to be twelve thousand in number, divided into thirteen parts. The largest called Male, is only a league in circumference. These islands produce excellent fruits, ambergris and tortoise-shells. They are all subject to a Mahometan king. They were discovered by the Portuguese in 1507, and neither they nor the other nations of Europe, have made any settlements on them.

Q. Where is the island of Ceylon situated?

A. It is a very extensive island, situated south of the Western Peninsula of India, and is only separated from it by the strait of Manar. The air is pure and wholesome; the soil produces rice, and divers sorts of fruits; they have mines of gems, and pearls are found on the coasts.— But its most valuable commodity is cinnamon,
of

of the best quality; there are whole forests of the tree which produces that spice. There are elephants in that island reputed the finest in Asia. The interior part of the island is subject to a prince called the king of Candy; who resides in the capital of that name; he is tributary to the Dutch, who are masters of the coasts.

Q. Who were the first Europeans who settled there?

A. The Portuguese, in 1506; they possessed many places on the coasts; but the Dutch drove them out in 1652, and have now the sole trade. The principal cities belonging to the Dutch are Colombo, towards the south; and the residence of their governor, Trincomale, towards the north; Pontogallo and Jafnapatan; all which are well fortified and have good ports.

Q. What island is there near Ceylon?

A. We find the small island of Manar, famous for the great quantities of pearls met with on the coasts; it also belongs to the Dutch.

THIRD PART.

LESSON XCI.

General Idea of AFRICA.

Q. **W**HAT is the situation of Africa?

A. It is the most southern of the three parts of the ancient continent; it forms an extensive peninsula, which terminates in a promontory in the south. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean; by the ocean west and south; and by the Red Sea and the isthmus of Suez on the east, which is the only place by which it communicates to the continent of Asia. Africa is a very hot climate; the soil is fruitful on the coasts, and in those parts which are watered by rivers; but in many of the interior parts it is covered with deserts and burning sands. It produces gold, silver, elephants' teeth, medicinal drugs, and gums produced by various sorts of wood, such as ebony, sandal, &c. They have

have many animals not to be met with in Europe,—such as lions, tigers, panthers, ostriches, monkeys of different species, cameleons, and serpents of an extraordinary size; and in some of their rivers they have crocodiles, the hippopotamus or sea-horse.

Q. What do you observe of the Africans?

A. They are for the most part ignorant and vicious; they are of a deep black, which may probably be occasioned by the heat of the climate; but nevertheless it is presumed their colour proceeds from some other reason; for it is known that there are people in America who have the same degree of heat, and yet are not so black.

Q. What knowledge had the ancients of Africa?

A. Barbary, or the northern part, was all they knew of it, of which the Romans, Vandals, and Saracens, were alternately masters; they thought it impossible the rest could be inhabited. It began to be better known in the fifteenth century, when the Portuguese visited the coasts, in search of a direct passage to the East Indies. Since then several trading people of Europe, the Dutch, English and French, have made settlements there.

Q. How are the Africans governed?

A. Some of them are governed by sovereigns, who treat them in a tyrannical manner; others live

live miserably in the deserts, without laws or morals. They are either Mahometans or Pagans; in some parts there are Jews; and in those parts where the Europeans traffic there are Christians.

Q. Have they any mountains?

A. They have three chains of high mountains; Mount Atlas in the north; the mountains of the Moon, in Abyssinia, towards the east; and the mountains of Sierra-Leona, in Guinea, towards the west.

Q. What capes have they?

A. They have three which are remarkable,—Cape Verd, in the west; the Cape of Good Hope in the south; and Cape Guardafui in the east.

Q. How is Africa divided?

A. In general it is divided into two principal parts; *terra firma*, and the islands which surround it. *Terra firma* comprehends ten considerable countries; three in the north, four in the middle, and three in the south. The three in the north are Egypt, towards the east; Barbary, towards the west; and the desert of Zara, south of Barbary. The four in the middle are Guinea, Nigritia, Nubia, and Abyssinia, running as here mentioned from west to east. The three in the south are Congo, Caffraria, and the coast of Zanguebar: the two first west of the Cape of Good Hope, and the last on the east.

LESSON XCII.

Of EGYPT.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Egypt?

A. Egypt is situated in the most eastern part of Africa; it is bounded by the Mediterranean, on the north; by the Red Sea, on the east; by Nubia, on the south; and by Barbary, on the west. The air is hot and unwholesome; but though it is a sandy soil, yet it is rendered fruitful by the annual and periodical inundations of the Nile.

Q. What is the Nile?

A. It is a very large river, which rises in the mountains of Abyssinia, and running from south to north, traverses Egypt in all its length, and discharges itself into the Mediterranean. This river overflows every year, in the month of June, and lays the adjacent plains under water, which gives them an extraordinary fertility, from the slime which it leaves behind. The harvest is abundant when the waters rise from sixteen to fourscore feet; but there is a scarcity when it goes above the latter, or remains below the former. Philosophers attribute these inundations to the rains which fall in Abyssinia in the summer, and to the winds, which

which in that season blow constantly north from the Mediterranean, and swell the waters of that river.

Q. What is found in the Nile?

A. We meet with cataracts in that river, some of which are said to fall two hundred feet; it abounds with alligators of a monstrous size; this animal, commonly called the crocodile, is amphibious and voracious:—It is larger there than in any other place.

Q. What does Egypt produce?

A. It abounds in wheat, and is now the granary of the Turks, as it formerly was of the Romans; its other productions are, various fruits, olives, dates, and medicinal drugs, such as cassia and senna. They have also very fine flax; and the natives breed a great number of chickens, which they hatch in ovens. Although their trade is greatly diminished since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, they nevertheless traffick still in Indian and Arabian goods, which the Turkish gallies bring over the Red Sea.

Q. What do you remark on the history of that country?

A. That it was the first inhabited country after the deluge. It was governed by its own sovereigns, of different families, and was afterwards under the dominion of Cambyfes, king of Persia, 530 years before Christ; after that Alexander the Great having abolished the kingdom of Persia, conquered also Egypt: at his death it was allotted to Ptole-
meus,

meus, one of his generals, who was the first of the kings of Egypt of that name, three hundred and thirty years before Christ.

Q. Who governed Egypt after that?

A. Ptolomeus Dionysius having been killed in a battle against Julius Cæsar, and his sister Cleopatra voluntarily poisoned by the sting of an aspic, after the death of Mark Anthony, the Romans took possession of it fifty-one years before Christ. It then became a province of the Roman empire; and remained so till the seventh century, when it was conquered by Omar, the second caliph, and became subject to the Saracens. About three hundred years after, the governors of Egypt made themselves independent of the caliphs, and took the title of sultan; among whom we remark the famous Saladin, so renowned in the history of the east; who distinguished himself as much by his virtue, as by his valour and successful defence against the Christians of the west, whom he forced to abandon, not only Egypt, but expelled them also from the Holy Land. After his death, in 1250, the Mammeluks, or slaves, entered the empire; and it remained in their possession till it was entirely conquered by Seïim II. emperor of the Turks, in 1516.

Q. To whom does it now belong?

A. It now constitutes a part of the Ottoman empire; and is governed by a bassa, who has several beys, or lieutenants under him:—It is the only government the Turks have in Africa; they were, nevertheless,

nevertheless, very near losing it some time after; for Ali Bey, a courageous and ambitious officer, found means to make himself master of Egypt; but having been abandoned by part of his army, was afterwards killed in battle, and the whole province restored to the grand signior.

Q. What do you observe of the Egyptians?

A. Those people, formerly so distinguished for their genius and love of science, are now, for the most part, degenerated into a set of ignorant and slothful robbers. The discoveries of astronomy, arithmetic, and geometry, was attributed to them; and particularly the art of surveying land; a science which the inundations of the Nile had rendered necessary.

Q. What religion do they profess?

A. They are mostly Mahometans; there are some schismatic Christians, called Cophtes, whose chief takes the name of patriarch of Alexandria. They have also among them Jews, and Greek Christians.

Q. How is Egypt divided?

A. It is generally divided according to the course of the Nile, into Upper and Lower Egypt; the former in the south, and the latter in the north. Upper Egypt is almost a barren country, and thinly peopled. There is nothing remarkable to be seen in it, except Girgé, the capital, a trading city, the residence of the sangiac, or lieutenant of the bassa. The capital of all Egypt is Cairo, in

the lower division, on the eastern bank of the Nile; it is a large, populous, and trading city, and has a castle, where the governor resides. Cairo is divided into three grand precincts: the inhabitants manufacture divers sorts of woollen stuffs, particularly those known by the name of Turkey carpets. Near that city we find those famous pyramids built by their former kings for their burial places, the largest of which is five hundred and twenty feet high; there is also the famous labyrinth, and the lake of Moeris, dug by order of one of their kings, to remedy the too great, or too small inundation of the Nile. One may also see their mummies, which are embalmed bodies, petrified by time and the liquors in which they are preserved; they are generally met with in wells, which were their tombs.

Q. What other cities are there in Egypt?

A. The most considerable of Lower Egypt are, Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, and Suez. Alexandria, a sea-port on the Mediterranean, was formerly a rich city, and the staple of Indian merchandise, but now of little consequence; the Venetians and the French continue to carry on a small trade there. Rosetta lies east of Alexandria, near the mouth of the Nile; it is a place of some trade, as the goods of Cairo are transported there by means of a canal. Damietta on the Mediterranean, is a populous and trading city. St. Lewis, king of France, took it in the second crusade,

fade, in 1249; but having himself been made prisoner by the sultan, returned it to pay his ransom. Suez is a sea-port on the Red Sea, which gives its name to the isthmus that joins Africa to Asia; the Arabians trade there, and the grand signior keeps a certain number of gallies in the port.

LESSON XCIII.

Of BARBARY.

Q. WHERE is Barbary?

A. It lies west of Egypt, and extends along the coasts of the Mediterranean, beyond the straits of Gibraltar; it is divided into two principal parts by mount Atlas; Barbary proper, in the north, and Biledulgerid in the south. Barbary proper is the most populous and fruitful country of all Africa; it produces corn, wine, and fruits in abundance. Their breed of horses is much esteemed, and they make a traffic of them, as also of their Morocco leather and coral.

Q. What are the inhabitants?

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A. They

A. They are of three sorts; the Moors, who are natives; a great number of Turks, who have made establishments there; and the independent Arabians, who inhabit the mountains toward the south.

Q. To whom did Barbary belong formerly?

A. It formerly constituted part of the Roman empire. It was taken from them by the Vandals, a northern people, in the sixth century; after which it passed under the dominion of the Saracens: at present the eastern part either belongs to the grand signior, or is under his protection; and the western, with the greatest part of Biledulgerid, belongs to the emperor of Morocco.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The Mahometan; there are nevertheless a great number of Jews, and some European Christians, who have settled there for the sake of trade.

Q. What is contained in Barbary proper?

A. Six states; all which are called kingdoms; Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, Fez, and Morocco. They are all found, from east to west, along the coast of the ocean, and the Mediterranean, in the same order as above. The kingdom of Barca is fruitful near the coast; but the interior part is barren and desert: it is subject to the grand signior, and governed by a san-giac;

giac; its capital is Derne, or Barca, a populous and fortified city.

Q. How are Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers governed?

A. They are governed in the form of republics, under the protection of the grand signior, who has a basha resident in each of those cities. The chiefs of those states are called the deys; their places are for life: they preside at the sovereign council: the Turkish basha has very little authority. Besides their commerce in grain and fruits, the inhabitants practise a continual piracy over the Christians, and take great numbers prisoners, who can only be redeemed by large sums of money.

Q. What is the kingdom of Tripoli?

A. It is, in general a barren and sandy soil; they gather the finest saffron, and various fruits. Tripoli, the capital, is a strong and trading city: it was bombarded by the French in 1728: it was taken in 1530, by the emperor Charles V.; who, in 1635, gave it to the knights of St. John, with the island of Malta; but the Turks took it from them, after a long, obstinate and bloody siege. The French and the English keep consuls there.

Q. Which is the capital of the kingdom of Tunis?

A. The capital is Tunis, a large, trading city, and a sea-port, at the extremity of the gulf of Goletta, where there is a fort of that name. St.

Lewis, king of France, died of the plague at the siege of Tunis. Towards the east we find the island of Lampelouse, belonging to the knights of Malta; and that of Pantaleria, dependent on the king of the Two Sicilies.

Q. Which is the capital of the kingdom of Algiers?

A. Algiers is the capital; it is a strong sea-port, and one of the richest and best built cities in Africa. Its inhabitants are the most formidable pirates in all Barbary. Lewis XIV. bombarded it twice last century. We meet with two other cities in that neighbourhood; Constantine, a strong place, and Bonne, a sea-port. The Spaniards have two cities in that kingdom, Oran*, and Marsalquiver. The French have a fortress there, called the French bastion, near which they find great quantities of coral.

Q. To whom do the kingdoms of Fez and Morocco belong?

A. To the king of Morocco; he is a powerful prince, and takes the title of emperor of Africa, and a descendant of Mahomet. This is the most populous country of all Barbary. Their capitals are the cities of Fez, in the north, and Morocco, in the south; they are both well built. There is an Arabian academy in the first, and the second is well fortified. The king resides at Me-

* Destroyed by an earthquake in 1790.

quinez, a city west of Fez, where he has an elegant palace. Besides these there are in the kingdom of Morocco, the cities of Larache and Mogadore, both sea-ports; Ceuta, a fortified place, on the strait of Gibraltar, belonging to Spain; Tetuan and Mazagan, belonging to Portugal; and Sallee, a port on the ocean, famous for piracy.

Q. Where is Biledulgerid situated?

A. It is a very extensive country which lies between Barbary proper, on the north, and Zaira, or the Desert, on the south, having Egypt on the east, and the ocean on the west. It is a hot climate; the soil is dry and sandy. Its chief production is dates, which the natives exchange for corn: most part of the inhabitants are originally Arabs. Their principal employment is hunting ostriches, (which abound in that country) and selling their feathers to the Europeans. Biledulgerid contains several kingdoms, some of which are subject to the king of Morocco; others constitute a part of the states of Algiers and Tunis; and some are independent. The most considerable of these kingdoms are Susa and Tafilet, towards the west, subject to the king of Morocco.

LESSON XCIV.

ZARA and GUINEA.

Q. WHAT country is Zara?

A. They call Zara, or the Desert, a vast extent of land, bounded on the north by Biledulgerid; by the unknown parts of Africa on the east; by Nigritia on the south; and by the Atlantic ocean on the west. It is an almost barren country, much less populous than Biledulgerid, and almost covered with burning sands. The natives have fixed habitations, but the Arabs, who are very numerous, are vagabonds and robbers: they all profess the Mahometan religion. Zara is divided into several deserts, which bear the name of the people they contain; of whom travellers can give but an imperfect account, as little of the country is known beyond the western coast, on which there are two remarkable capes, Cape Bojador and Cape Blanca, which were discovered by the Portuguese in the fifteenth century. The French are masters of a port called Portentico, to which they resort to purchase gum senegal, which abounds in the forests. Caravans from Morocco travel all through the country to Nigritia, where they traffic in gold and slaves; but water is so scarce,

scarce, that their camels are loaded with little else.

Q. What is Guinea?

A. We comprehend under that denomination, all that part of the western coast of Africa which lies between Zara on the north, Congo on the south, and Nigritia on the east. The climate is hot, but tempered by cool nights, and refreshing dews. They have but two seasons, summer, and winter, which is their rainy season. The soil produces rice and fruits. They trade in gold dust, which is found in their rivers, elephants' teeth, and slaves. The American traders purchase negroes there, and transport them to America: they find them to be robust, and more capable than others to work in their mines. The people of Guinea are perfectly black; they are addicted to many vices, the fruits of ignorance; and are all idolaters. In some places they have kings, and are republicans in others. The French were the first who made settlements there, in the fourteenth century; and after them the Portuguese, and the English; but at present the Dutch carry on the greatest trade. It is divided into two parts, the one north and the other south. In the northern division they have two rivers, the Senegal in the north, and the Gambia in the south: they both run from east to west.

Q. What are the European establishments?

A. The

A. The French are in possession of fort St. Lewis, near the mouth of the river Senegal; and the island of Goree; but by the treaty in 1762, they were obliged to give them up to the English, who have also fort St. James, at the mouth of the Gambia.

Q. How is Southern Guinea divided?

A. Into three parts; the coast of Malaguetta, in the north; Guinea proper, in the middle; and the kingdom of Benin, in the south.

Q. How is Guinea proper divided?

A. Into four parts; the grain coast, the tooth coast, the gold coast, and the slave coast,—all names taken from the trade carried on in each of them. The Dutch have made a settlement at St. George de la Mina; the English at Cape Corse; and the Danes at Christiansbourg; these three forts are established for the protection of trade with the natives.

Q. What is the kingdom of Benin?

A. It is the most extensive of all those we meet with in the southern division of Guinea; it is very populous, and abounds in cotton and pepper. The capital is Benin, where the Dutch and Portuguese trade considerably.

LESSON XCV.

NIGRITIA, NUBIA, and ABYSSINIA.

Q. WHERE is Nigritia situated?

A. Nigritia, or Negro-land, lies in the interior part of Africa, east of Guinea and south of Zara; the air is hot and unwholesome; the soil is productive only in the vicinity of the rivers, where it produces rice, flax, and cotton; the rest of the country is barren, and only inhabited by wild beasts, and a miserable set of negroes, as black as those of Guinea, with wool instead of hair; some are Mahometans, and others have neither religion, morals, government, nor fixed habitations; the caravans from Barbary trade there for gold and elephants' teeth; the negroes go to Guinea, where they sell each other to the Europeans, who give them bars of iron, linen, and hard-ware in return.

Q. What rivers have they?

A. It is watered by the Niger, which gives its name to the country, and has its periodical inundations the same as the Nile; it runs from west to east, and falls into the lake of Bornou; the country is so situated as not to be perfectly explored: it contains several kingdoms,—the two principal are Tombut and Bornou.

Q. Where is Nubia situated?

A. Nubia, which is called a kingdom, is bounded by Egypt on the north,—by the Red Sea on the east,—by Abyssinia on the south,—and by Nigritia on the west; the soil is not very fruitful; its most valuable produce is gold, ivory, musk, and sandal-wood: the Nile crosses it entirely from south to north. The religion of the inhabitants is a mixture of Mahometanism and Judaism; formerly they were Christians. It is subject to the king of Sennar, who resides in the capital of that name; it is a large and populous city, on the Nile.

Q. Where is Abyssinia situated?

A. It lies south of Nubia; it has the Red Sea on the east,—and Nigritia on the west. It is in general a mountainous and barren country, except in those places which are watered by the Nile, and there it produces rice in abundance; they have, it is true, sugar-canes, and mines of different metals, but the natives do not avail themselves of them. They trade but little with foreigners, unless for flax and cotton: they have also some senna and other medicinal drugs. The natives are black, but not so hideous as the negroes; they are of the Greek church, and the sect of Cophtes; they acknowledge the authority of the patriarch of Alexandria, who names their bishop. Some Portuguese missionaries had settled there in the sixteenth century, but were expelled,

expelled, and the entrance of Catholick missionaries prohibited in Abyffinia.

Q. How is that country governed?

A. By a prince who takes the title of Emperor, or Negus, and who exercises an absolute authority; this empire has suffered great restrictions from a neighbouring and cruel people called Galls; and by the Turks on the Red Sea.

Q. Are there any cities in that country?

A. The best geographers assert, that there are no cities, but a great number of villages,—and that the emperor and all his court live under tents; so that his camp may be looked upon as the capital of his kingdom. Towards the eastern coast we find Abex, on the Red Sea; it entirely belongs to the Grand Signior, who keeps a bassa in the kingdom of Suaquem, a sea-port.

LESSON XCVI.

CONGO, CAFFRARIA, and ZANGUEBAR.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Congo?

A. It lays along the western coast of Africa,—has Guinea on the north, and Caffraria on the south; it is watered by the river Zaira, which
runs

runs from east to west. What is in general called Congo, is an assemblage of several kingdoms, known under their particular denominations, of which Congo is much the largest, and so gives its name to the whole. The productions of this country are much the same as in Guinea; they have mines of iron and copper, but their greatest trade is in slaves; the principal kingdoms which compose what is generally called Congo, are Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; they are situated from north to south.

Q. Of what religion are the natives?

A. They were formerly all idolaters,—but by the exertions of the Portuguese missionaries, many of them have embraced christianity.

Q. To whom are those kingdoms subject?

A. The kingdom of Loango has its own sovereign, who resides in a capital of that name. Congo has also its sovereign, who is a Christian, as well as great part of his subjects; he resides in his capital, called San Salvador, which is a bishoprick; the Portuguese engross almost the whole trade; they have several churches, and a building erected by the Jesuits for their habitation, built with stones brought from Europe.

Q. What is the kingdom of Angola?

A. It is a fruitful and populous kingdom, and belongs to the king of Portugal; its capital is St. Paul-de-Loanda, a bishoprick, and a sea-port; it is a large city, the residence of the Portuguese governor.

Q. What

Q. What do you observe of Benguela?

A. It is an unwholesome country,—but has some silver mines; it formerly belonged to Portugal; but the Dutch have since made themselves masters of St. Philip, the capital.

Q. What is Caffraria?

A. It is the southern part of Africa, which terminates in a point or promontory; that country is bounded on the north by Congo and Zanguebar, and by the sea on the three other sides; it may be divided into two parts,—the coasts and the inland country; which last contains the empires of Monomotapa and Monmevugi, with many other countries but imperfectly known. The Portuguese penetrated into Monomotapa, which they call the golden kingdom, and say it is subject to a very powerful prince, who resides in the city of Zimbaze; but they trade no more there. The interior parts of Africa are inhabited by divers sets of cruel, barbarous, and vagabond people,—such as the Galls, the Jagos, and the Anzicains, which are said to be cannibals.

Q. What are the people who inhabit the south?

A. They are called Hottentots,—they are the ugliest, most slovenly and brutal creatures of all Africa; their religion consists only in some superstitious ceremonies. The maritime part of Caffraria is in a pure and wholesome air; the soil abounds in grain, fruits, and pasture, on which they feed a vast number of cattle. It is divided
into

into eastern and western coasts; they both unite in one point called the Cape of Good Hope; which is the ordinary passage for ships to the East Indies. This important cape was discovered by the Portuguese, under the conduct of Bartholomew Diaz, and first sailed round by Vasco de Gama, towards the end of the fifteenth century; the first called it Cape Torment, on account of the violent tempests they experienced.

Q. Who are the Europeans established there?

A. The Dutch have a very considerable settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, which is a place of refreshment for ships going to, or coming from India. The Dutch have also a beautiful garden there, where plants of the four parts of the world are found; they have even advanced into the interior parts, and have planted vines which produce excellent wine.

Q. What is met with on the eastern coast?

A. On that coast, towards the north, we find Sofala, on a river of that name, where the Portuguese have a fort for the protection of their trade with the Caffrees, who bring them gold, ivory, and ambergris.

Q. Where is Zanguebar situated?

A. It lies north of Caffraria, and occupies all the eastern coast as far as the Red Sea: it comprehends two coasts,—that of Zanguebar proper, and Ajan, towards the north; it is a marshy country, and on that account very unwholesome.

They

They traffic in gold and ivory; it is inhabited by the natives, who are idolaters,—and by Arabs, who are Mahometans; the coast of Zanguebar is divided from south to north, into several kingdoms, the chief of which are Mozambique, Mombaze and Melinda; each of them bears the name of its capital. The Portuguese are the only Europeans who trade there, and have forts; they have a governor at Mozambique, which is a large and fortified city, and stands on an island.

Along the coast of Ajan we find the republick of Brava, which is tributary to Portugal; its capital bears the same name; it is a sea-port, and a place of great trade. Towards the north we find the kingdom of Adel.

LESSON XCVII.

Of the Islands of AFRICA.

Q. How are the islands of Africa divided?

A. They may be disposed in two classes, some east and others west of that continent. Those on the west are subdivided into five portions: the Azores, the island of Madeira, the Canary islands, those of Cape Verd, and those of Guinea.

A a

Q. Where

Q. Where are the Azores situated?

A. They lay at some distance from the continent, between Africa and America. It lies in a pure and wholesome air; and though it is a mountainous country, the soil is productive.—From thence comes the best woad made use of by painters and dyers. These islands were first discovered by some Flemish navigators, in the fifteenth century, but the Portuguese are possessors of them now; and the inhabitants are Catholics. They are nine in number, the largest of which is Tercera; the capital Angra, a seaport and bishoprick, the residence of the Portuguese governor.

Q. Where is the island of Madeira?

A. Madeira, to which we must add that of Porto-Santo, lies west of the coasts of Barbary. It produces corn, fruits, sugar-canes, and particularly an excellent wine, for which they trade considerably in America. It belongs to the Portuguese, who discovered it in 1420. The king keeps a governor at Funchal, which is the capital and a bishoprick. Porto-Santo, north of Madeira, belongs also to Portugal. It produces good honey, and a gum called dragon's-blood.

Q. Where are the Canary islands?

A. They lie on the western coast of Barbary, and south of Madeira; they are very populous and productive; they abound in sugar, honey, wax, fruits and excellent wine. They belong

to the Spaniards, who took them from Normans, who had discovered them. The natives are now all Catholics; these islands are twelve in number; the largest are Teneriffe, Canary and Ferro. Teneriffe is the most extensive of all; its capital is Laguna, a bishoprick, the residence of the Spanish governor. There we find the famous pico of Teneriffe, one of the highest mountains in the world, and a dangerous volcano. The island of Canary proper, which gives its name to all the others, is a very fruitful soil, produces wine and fruits, but particularly corn, of which they have two crops a year. Canary, a bishoprick and sea-port, is the capital.

Q. Where is the island of Ferro?

A. It is the most western of all; it is there the French have fixed their first meridian.

Q. Where are the islands of Cape Verd?

A. They lay west of Nigritia, opposite the cape, and at the mouth of the river Senegal;—they are in a hot and unwholesome climate, and produce little besides rice and fruits. They deal chiefly in salt, goats-skins, and turtles, of which there are plenty on the coasts. In those islands the Portuguese (who discovered them in the fifteenth century) transport their convicts. The largest of them is that called St. James's Island; its capital is Ribeira, a bishoprick, the residence of the governor.

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Q. What

Q. What are the islands of Guinea?

A. We comprehend under that denomination, several islands opposite the coasts of Guinea and Congo. The most considerable are St. Thomas, Prince's Island, and that of St. Helen's. The climate of the two first is unwholesome, and fatal to the Europeans. They belong to the king of Portugal, who keeps a governor at St. Thomas, which is a bishoprick, and the capital of the island of that name.

Q. Where is the island of St. Helen's?

A. It lies south of the last mentioned islands, and west of the Cape of Good Hope, in a very wholesome air. It abounds in cattle and vegetables of all sorts. It belongs to the English, who have there a considerable settlement, advantageous for trade, and where their ships put in on their return from India.

Q. What islands are there on the eastern coast of Africa?

A. They are very numerous; the most remarkable are those of Madagascar, Bourbon, Maurice, the Comoras, and Socotora. The island of Madagascar is much the largest, and situated east of the coast of Zanguebar; it is fruitful and populous; it produces valuable woods, such as sandal, ebony, &c. They also find different gems in the earth; but the cruel disposition of the natives has made it impracticable for any European nation to form establishments there.—

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The French had landed, built a fort, and made a treaty of commerce with the islanders, but they soon after surprised the unsuspecting garrison, and slaughtered them all. The island of Bourbon lies east of Madagascar; it belongs to the French,—it furnishes them with aloes, tobacco and coffee, which they first planted there: it is the staple of that nation for their trade in India. The island St. Maurice was thus called by the Dutch; but since it belongs to the French, they call it the *Ile de France*, or French Island. It lies east of Bourbon; it produces ebony and tortoise-shell. The Comora Island lies north of Madagascar, and belongs to several petty princes tributary to Portugal. They trade in ginger and cocoa nuts. The island of Socotora lies east of Cape Gardafui; it is inhabited by Mahometan Arabs: the Portuguese trade there for frankincense and aloes: the capital is Tamarin.

FOURTH PART.

LESSON XCVIII.

AMERICA.

Q. **W**HAT is America?

A. It is that vast continent called the New World, situated west of Europe and Africa, for which reason it is also called the West Indies. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic circle; by the Atlantic ocean, which separates it from Europe and Africa, on the east; by the strait of Magellan on the south; and by the Pacific ocean or South Sea, on the west. The great extent of this country, which is more than eight thousand miles in length, from north to south, is a reason for the air and soil being extremely different; in the middle part it is excessively hot, and at the two extremities intensely cold.

Q. What

Q. What is the produce of America?

A. In general the soil is fertile, and produces all the necessaries of life; Indian wheat is the ordinary food of the inhabitants; they have divers fruits which do not grow in Europe. The things which constitute their riches are sugar, tobacco, cocoa, cochineal, indigo, woods for staining, pearls and other gems; but above all, their gold and silver mines, which are abundant, and of great advantage to the Europeans.

Q. Was America known by the ancients?

A. It is presumed it was, but that they had forsaken it, and no idea of it remained for several centuries. It was discovered by Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, an able navigator and good astronomer; he had fixed his residence in the island of Madeira, and persuaded himself, by many observations he had made, that there certainly was land in the west. Having determined to go out on a search, he presented his plan to several sovereigns, who rejected it. At last Ferdinand V. king of Arragon, having approved of it, gave him all that was necessary for his voyage. Having thus gained what he desired, in 1492, he sailed with three small ships; and after a long and painful navigation, discovered one of the Bahama islands, to which he gave the name of San-Salvador. Proud of having found a new world, he returned to Europe, but shortly after sailed out again, and landed at some of the Ca-

ribbe islands, of which he took possession in the name of the king of Spain.

Q. Did any other undertake the same voyage?

A. Yes; some years after Americus Vespucius, a Florentine, went the same road, and pretended, in 1497, to the honour of landing first on the continent of America; and gave his name to a part of it. The Spaniards were the first who made settlements there; they were shortly after followed by the Portuguese, and successively by all the trading nations of Europe. But as those powers had nothing more in view than to establish themselves on the coasts, there are several provinces of which the interior parts are yet unknown.

Q. How is America supposed to have been peopled?

A. It is presumed, from the last discoveries made by the Russians, that the first inhabitants of America came from the north-east of Asia;—those two parts being very near to each other, and having several islands between them. This opinion is further confirmed by the resemblance observed between the Asiatics and the North Americans, in their complexion, arms, and food.

Q. What is their religion?

A. The natives are Pagans; but at present many of them profess the Christian religion, in which

which they have been instructed by the Europeans. Four sorts of inhabitants are now remarked in America; the natives; the mulattos, born of an European and American; the Europeans, who are established there; and the negroes brought from Africa.

Q. What mountains have they?

A. Two chains of very remarkable mountains; the Cordeliers [of Peru, which extend from the isthmus of Panama, to the strait of Magellan; and the Apalachian mountains in Virginia.

Q. What capes have they?

A. The principal capes are Cape Breton, at the entrance of the river St. Laurence, towards the north; Cape Florida, in the gulf of Mexico, in the middle; and Cape St. Augustin, in the south.

Q. Have they any lakes?

A. Yes; the most considerable are the lake Superior, the lake Erié, and the lake Ontario; which are found in the north, and communicate to each other.

Q. How is America divided?

A. Into *Terra Firma*, and its islands. *Terra Firma* is divided into northern and southern, joined by the isthmus of Panama or Darien.

LESSON XCIX.

Of NORTH-AMERICA.

Q. What does North America contain?

A. Five principal countries; New France, New England, Florida, New Mexico, Old Mexico, or New Spain; they are all found on the maps in the order here indicated, from north to south.

Q. What is New France?

A. It is the most northern part of America; and so called, because the French had their chief settlements there; it contains two countries, Canada and Louisiana. By the treaty of peace, in 1762, France gave up to England all its possessions on the terra firma of North America, except Louisiana, which was given to the Spaniards in 1767; since that, the Spaniards and the English were in possession of all North America, except the inland parts, which still belong to the natives, till the last revolution, of which we will speak hereafter.

Q. Where is Canada situated?

A. It is bounded on the north by Hudson's Bay; by the North Sea and New England, on the east; by Florida, on the south; and by New Mexico, and other unknown countries, on the west. The air is cold, because the country abounds with lakes and forests; the soil is fruitful, and produces good grain; they have iron and copper mines, and

various

various species of wild beasts: they trade in furs, such as bear-skins, fox-skins, martens, and beavers; besides timber for ship-building, and great quantities of cod-fish, which are met with near the coast.

Q. By whom was Canada discovered?

A. By some fishermen of Brittany, who were thrown upon it in 1504; after which John Verrazzan invaded it in the name of Francis I. under whose reign the first establishments were made. It is now subject to the king of England, who sends a governor there.

Q. What is remarked of the natives of Canada?

A. They are divided into several nations; the most populous of which are the Iroquois, the Hurons, and the Algonquins; they are hardy, courageous, and dextrous.

Q. What is their religion?

A. Some among them are Roman Catholics, and others idolaters. They rub themselves with oil, and paint their bodies of various colours: they obey their own princes, called sagamos. Their arms are a bow, an arrow, and a club. Their chief employment is hunting and fishing; their wives manure the land: they trade with the English, who are allied to them, and have forts in their country. Canada is watered by the river St. Lawrence, which traverses it from west to east, and falls into the gulf of that name.

Q. How is Canada divided?

A. Into

A. Into five provinces; which are, Labrador, in the north; Canada proper, and Saguenac, in the south; and Gaspésie and Acadia, in the east.

Q. What is Labrador?

A. It is a very cold country, situated on Hudson's-Bay, inhabited by savages, called Esquimaux. The English are the only people who trade with the natives for their furs.

Q. Which is the capital of Canada?

A. Quebec, on the river St. Lawrence; it is a bishoprick, and the residence of the English governor: it is a well-built city, very populous, and defended by a good citadel. There is also Montreal, west of Quebec, a fortified city, and a place of great trade in furs.

Q. What is Acadia?

A. It is a peninsula, east of the river St. Lawrence: it was ceded to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; they have since established a considerable colony there, called Nova Scotia: Port Royal is the capital. It is remarkable, that in 1755, a war broke out between England and France, about fixing the boundaries of that country.

Q. Where is Louisiana situated?

A. It is bounded by Canada, on the north; by Florida, on the east; by Mexico, on the south; and, by unknown lands, on the west. It is called Louisiana, because it was discovered under the reign of Lewis XIV. by M. de la Salle, who died
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in the expedition. It is an extensive country, and fruitful towards the south: it is covered with forests, and inhabited by different sorts of savages, such as the Panis, and the Padoucas. The interior part is little known: it is watered by the great river Mississippi, which traverses it from north to south, and falls into the gulf of Mexico. The chief establishment is New Orleans, the residence of the French governor, before it was given up to Spain.

LESSON C.

NORTH AMERICA *continued.*

NEW ENGLAND *and* FLORIDA.

Q. WHAT is understood by New England?

A. That name has been given to all that part of North America where the English had settlements, except those provinces of which we have spoken in the foregoing lesson. It is bounded north and west by Canada, and is situated along the coast of the northern sea, which is its boundary on the south. The air is wholesome, the climate

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LESSON C.

NORTH AMERICA continued.

NEW ENGLAND and FLORIDA.

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is mild and temperate, and the soil produces all the necessaries of life.—They have rice, tobacco, furs, silk and timber. The coasts of New England were successively discovered by different navigators in the sixteenth century. Sir Walter Raleigh called that country Virginia, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. Those colonies are now numerous and populous; they carry on a great trade through the mildness of its laws, and the liberty of conscience they enjoy. They were subject to governors sent by the king of England; but the inhabitants, who till then had enjoyed very extensive privileges, thinking themselves oppressed, their commerce restrained, and overburthened with taxes, revolted against the English government, and declared their independence. The French, always ready to foment, and take an active part in all intestine broils, whenever they find their advantage, entered into a treaty with the new republicans, and aided them to the utmost of their power. This illiberal conduct created a long and bloody war, which England *alone* sustained for more than six years, against the united powers of France, Spain, Holland and America, besides an Indian war against Hyder Ally; and after that, to the astonishment of all the rest of Europe, who had remained idle spectators, England made the most honourable peace in 1783: at the same time that they acknowledged the independency of the Americans.

Q. How

Q. How are they governed at present?

A. The whole country is composed of thirteen provinces, who have entered into a confederacy, and formed one sole republick, modelled on that of the United Provinces of Holland. They are governed by a congress, composed of the deputies of each province, which decides sovereignly. They have paid great honours to General Washington, who was their chief commander in the rebellion, and who, by his prudence, contributed greatly to their success.

Q. What do you observe of the natives?

A. That they are, in general, a mild people; most of them idolaters; some follow the religion of their masters, and trade with them for furs. The whole thirteen provinces lay along the coast, the chief of which extend from north to south, viz. New England proper, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Carolina. The capital of New England is Boston, a sea-port, a large and well-built city, which is the centre of their trade: there is also New York, the capital of the province of that name. Pennsylvania takes its name from William Penn, chief of the Quakers, to whom Charles II. gave it, in 1681; it is mostly inhabited by that sect, and who, as in England, affect the greatest simplicity; they apply themselves to agriculture and commerce, never take an oath, or serve in war. The capital is Philadelphia, a large, populous, rich, and trading city. Virginia is reputed the best of all the thirteen

teen provinces ; its chief produce is tobacco, held in good esteem ; its capital is James-town, a fortified sea-port. Carolina produces chiefly rice ; they feed large herds of cattle,—and begin to have silk worms : its capital is Charlestown. There is also Petersburg, a Swiss colony. The southern part of Carolina is called Georgia, because there was a colony established there under the reign of George II. in 1732, on which is Fort St. George.

Q. Where is Florida situated ?

A. Florida is an extensive peninsula, bounded north and west by Louisiana ; by Carolina and the north sea, on the east ; and by the gulf of Mexico, on the south ; it was called Florida, from its being discovered by Ferdinand Soto, a Spaniard, on Palm Sunday, 1528. After which, the French had established themselves there under the reign of Charles IX. but the Spaniards took them prisoners by surprise, and murdered them all, in violation of an oath taken at the capitulation. In order to revenge this act of cruelty, Dominique de Gourgues, a gentleman from Gascony, fitted out a vessel at his own expence, sailed to Florida in 1565, surprised, in his turn, the Spaniards in their fort, and had them all hung on the same trees on which the French had suffered ; notwithstanding that, the Spaniards once more entered Florida, and preserved it till the treaty of 1762, by which they were forced

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to abandon it to the English. It is a fruitful country; the natives are brave,—enemies to the Europeans, and trade very little with them; they are idolaters, and have preserved their independence. The English are the only people established there; they have two forts, St. Augustin, on the eastern coast,—and Pensacola, on the gulf of Mexico.

LESSON CL.

NORTH AMERICA *continued.*

NEW and OLD MEXICO.

Q. WHAT is New Mexico?

A. It is a vast tract of land but little known; it lies on the west of North America; it is bounded on the east by Louisiana,—on the south by Old Mexico,—and on the west by the gulf of California; the air is wholesome and temperate; the soil is fertile,—it produces Indian wheat, and many sorts of fruit; there are gold, silver, and diamond mines. It is inhabited by different sets of savages, who live by hunting, and the produce of the land, which they cultivate; they are ido-

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laters,

laters, and obey their chiefs, called Caciques. The Spaniards, who discovered it in the sixteenth century, have made some settlements, the chief of which is Santa Fé, the capital, a bishoprick, and the residence of the governor,

Q. What is met with on the west of New Mexico?

A. We find a country called California, which is a peninsula, joined to the continent on the north. The coasts and the southern part of the country are all that are known of it. It is an agreeable and fruitful country: they fish for pearls on the coasts. The Jesuits had a settlement at Cape St. Luca. There is an interesting observation to be made for geography,—which is, that the Russians, after having formed a settlement at Kamtschatka, undertook, in 1741, to discover the western coasts of America, by the South Seas; they found that the strait of Anian, which separates Asia from America, is but fifty leagues over; that for a great part of the year it is frozen up; and that in its width there are several islands; all which serves as a proof, that it is at least probable, that by their vicinity, America may have been peopled from Asia?

Q. Where is Old Mexico?

A. Old Mexico, commonly called New Spain, is bounded on the north by New Mexico, and extends all the way to the isthmus of Panama, between the north and south sea; the air is pure,

pure,—the climate temperate,—and the soil produces corn, Indian wheat, and all sorts of fruits; their pasture lands are excellent: they have also gold and silver mines; besides which they furnish cocoa, indigo, cochineal, and perfumes.

Q. How was Mexico governed formerly?

A. By very powerful kings, who were nevertheless elective; the last of whom was Montezuma, under whose reign the Spaniards, conducted by Ferdinand Cortes, undertook the conquest of that kingdom, in 1518: in the space of three years they made themselves masters of the whole kingdom. Montezuma, after losing several battles, was obliged to admit the Spaniards into his capital, in 1521, where he was made prisoner by Cortes, and afterwards killed in a sedition. Although the Spaniards were not more than a thousand, they several times defeated considerable armies of Mexicans, which must be attributed to their fire-arms, as much as to the courage of their chiefs. Since that, Mexico has always been subject to the king of Spain, who keeps a viceroy there. The natives are now Roman Catholicks, or, at least, are obliged to appear such for fear of the inquisition. The Mexicans are mild, industrious, and formed by nature for arts and commerce,—but the Spaniards do not use them well; they are admitted to no posts, neither civil nor ecclesiastical: strangers are not even permitted to enter that rich country.

Q. How is Mexico divided?

A. Into three governments,—that of Mexico in the middle; that of Gaudalaria, north; and that of Guatimala, south; each of which has the name of its capital, and contains several provinces. The capital of all the kingdom is Mexico, situated on the lake of that name; it is an archbishoprick, and the residence of the viceroy: this is the largest and finest city of North America. The churches are magnificent; there are a great number of convents,—and its inhabitants live in splendour and luxury. In the government of Mexico there is also Vera-Cruz, a sea-port, the rendezvous of the European merchants; Acapulco, a sea-port on the South Sea, from whence the galleon sets sail yearly for the Philippines; and Campechy, in the peninsula of of Jucatan, from whence they get the coloured wood for dyers. In the government of Guatimala is Leon de Nicaragua, a large and trading city, situated on a lake which communicates with the north sea; its capital, of the same name, was almost destroyed by an earthquake, in 1773.

LESSON CII.

The Islands of NORTH AMERICA.

Q. WHAT islands are there in North America?

A. There are a great number of islands, which are found in the northern sea, east of the continent of America. They may be ranged in four general classes: the islands of Newfoundland,—the Bermudas,—the Lucayes or Bahamas,—and the Caribbees; they will be found on the maps in the order here indicated, from north to south.

Q. Where are the islands of Newfoundland?

A. They are situated in the gulf of St. Lawrence, opposite the coast of New France. Four of them are most worthy of remark,—Newfoundland proper, Cape Breton, St. John, and Anticostie; all these islands had been ceded to the English by the treaty of peace of 1762, but the French, who had lost all their possessions in Newfoundland, have recovered part of them by the treaty of 1783.

Q. What is to be observed of Newfoundland?

A. Newfoundland proper is one of the largest of all America; it was discovered in the fifteenth century by some fishermen of Biscay,—but as the Europeans only frequent it for their fisheries, they have made no establishments but on the

coasts; its capital is Placentia, a sea-port in the south. On the east of the island is the great sand-bank frequented yearly by the Europeans for their cod and whale fisheries.

Q. What is the island of Cape Breton?

A. It is an island of great importance by its situation; its capital is Louisbourg, a sea-port, of which the English made themselves masters in the late war, and demolished the fortifications.

Q. In what situation are the Bermudas?

A. They were discovered in the sixteenth century by the Spaniards; they lay opposite the coast of Virginia; they belong to the English. One of them only is considerable, called Bermuda,—it produces silk, tobacco, and turtles of an extraordinary size. There is also the city of St. George, which is the residence of the governor.

Q. Where are the Bahama islands?

A. The Bahamas, or Lucayes, are situated along the coasts of Florida, and are separated from it by a dangerous canal, called the channel of Bahama. The Spaniards and the English have occupied it alternately; the former have abandoned them, and taken with them great part of the inhabitants. The largest of those islands are Bahama,—San Salvador, the first discovered by Christopher Columbus,—and Providence island, where the English have erected a fort, after having expelled a gang of pirates who were settled there.

Q. How

Q. How are the Caribbees divided?

A. They are distinguished under the denomination of large and small; the large are situated south of Florida, and at the entrance of the gulf of Mexico; we reckon four of them, which are Cuba, Jamaica, St. Domingo, and Porto Rico.

Q. What is the island of Cuba?

A. It is the largest of the Antilles or Caribbees; it lies opposite to the point of Florida; it is a mountainous country, which produces but very little; it has some few mines; but its greatest trade is in those tobacco leaves with which they make the Spanish snuff. Parrots are very abundant all over the island. It has belonged, ever since it was discovered, to the Spaniards, who have destroyed all the natives, and transport negroes from Africa to cultivate their lands. The capital is Havanna, in the east of the island; it is a large and trading city, the residence of the governor. It has a spacious and sure port, with a strong citadel; this is the rendezvous of all the Spanish ships which return from America to Europe: the English had once taken possession of it, but returned it to the Spaniards.

LESSON CHII.

The Islands of NORTH AMERICA continued.

Q. WHAT is Jamaica?

A. It is an island situated south of Cuba; the soil is fruitful, and produces chiefly sugar, tobacco, and cotton; they have also numbers of tortoises. This island also produces a very extraordinary tree called Lagetto; the bark of which they raise in lays of different thickneses, which they spin, and of which they make different stuffs, linen and lace.

Q. To whom does that island belong?

A. It formerly belonged to the Spaniards, but they were driven out of it by the English in 1655, who are still masters of it; they have established it into a noble colony, which is to them of great importance for their trade, The capital is Spanish-Town, formerly San-Jago de la Vega. It is a large, rich, and populous city, and the residence of the governor. Port-Royal, which is their principal sea-port, is four leagues distant from the capital.

Q. Where is the island of St. Domingo?

A. It lies east of Cuba, and is the richest of all the Caribbee islands: the climate is hot and unwholesome,

wholesome, but the soil is productive; it furnishes them with tobacco, sugar, indigo, and cochineal; there are also gold and silver mines in the mountains. It was discovered in 1492, by Christopher Columbus; who called it Hispaniola. It was then very populous, but the Spaniards destroyed all the natives, after having treated them with the utmost cruelty. For a long time this island had two masters, the Spaniards in the east, and the French in the west; but the Spaniards having exchanged all their possessions in that island for Louisiana, the French have ever since remained sole masters of it. The capital of the eastern part is St. Domingo, an archbishoprick, the former residence of the governor of all the Spanish Antilles; it is a large, but unwholesome city, and not very populous. The capital of the West is the Cape François, or French Cape, a populous and well fortified borough; there is also the city of Leogana.

Q. What is Porto-Rico?

A. It is the smallest of all the great Caribbee islands. It lies east of St. Domingo, and its produce is much the same. It belongs to the Spaniards, who destroyed the natives as soon as they were masters of it. Its capital is St. John de Porto-Rico, a bishoprick and sea-port.

Q. Where are the small Antilles?

A. There are a considerable number of them situated in the gulf of Mexico; they extend in the

the form of a semi-circle, from the island of Porto-Rico, almost to the coast of South America. It is a hot climate, and unwholesome to the Europeans; but the islands, in general, abound in cocoa, sugar, tobacco, cotton, and other useful productions. They are very subject to earthquakes and hurricanes, which sometimes lay the whole country waste. In some of them the trading nations of Europe have made considerable settlements; there are, nevertheless, some of them still in the power of the natives, whom they suppose to be cannibals, and are idolaters; but those subject to Europeans, profess the same religion as their masters.

Q. How are those islands divided?

A. Into as many classes as there are powers who have subjected them, which are five; the French, the English, the Spaniards, the Dutch, and the Danes.

Q. Which are those belonging to the French?

A. The most considerable of the French possessions are, Martinico, in the middle, Gaudaloupe and Maria-Galarde, in the north. Martinico is the richest of the French colonies; it produces sugar, indigo, and coffee. They have also a root called Manioco, of which the inhabitants make bread. The capital is Fort Royal, where the governor of all the French islands resides.

Q. Which are the English islands?

A. Those

A. Those belonging to England are, Barbadoes, Barbuda, Antigua, St. Christopher's, and Grenada. Barbadoes is one of the finest colonies of all the Antilles; its principal produce is sugar, and diverse fruits. The capital is Bridge-Town, a seaport, a rich and trading city: it is the only city of all the Caribbee islands surrounded by a wall.

Q. What do the Dutch possess?

A. Their principal establishment is the island of Curacao, which produces sugar, and where they have a fort.

Q. What have the Spaniards?

A. They are masters of St. Margaret, and Trinity-island, which lay south, and where they are successful in their pearl fishery.

Q. Which are the Danish possessions?

A. They have the two small islands of St. Croix and St. Thomas, which lay east of Porto-Rico.

Q. Is there any thing more to be remarked on those islands?

A. Several of them had been declared neutral, and left to the natives. The most remarkable are, St. Vincent and Dominica; but by the treaty made between France and England in 1762, it was agreed that they should share them; so that those two islands belong at present to England; and the French have taken possession of St. Lucia and Tobago. It is further remarked, that as the European establishments in those islands

are

are distant from each other, and spread all over the country, the governors inhabit only the fortresses built for the protection of those colonies.

LESSON CIV.

Of SOUTH AMERICA.

Q. WHAT is South America?

A. It is a great peninsula, which is joined to North America by the isthmus of Darien, or Panama, and terminates in a point: its figure greatly resembles that of Africa. It comprehends seven principal countries; *Terra Firma*, in the north; Peru and Chili, in the west; the country of the Amazons in the middle; Brazil, in the east; Paraguay, and the Magellan country in the south.

Q. Where is *Terra Firma* situated?

A. *Terra Firma* lies between the north and south seas, having the gulf of Mexico on the north, Peru, and the country of the Amazons on the south. It is thus called because it was the first which Columbus discovered;—he called

called it by that name, to distinguish it from the islands on which he had landed. It is a very hot climate, and often fatal to the Europeans. There is no winter in that country, except the rainy season, which lasts four months. The soil is fruitful, and they feed abundance of cattle. It produces gold, silver, pearls, balm, the best cocoa, and excellent tobacco, which they cultivate in the village of Verrine. The country is watered by the famous river Oronoko, which runs from south to north, and falls into the north sea.

Q. To whom does *Terra Firma* belong?

A. The greatest part of it belongs to the king of Spain, who sends a governor there. The French and the Dutch have some few possessions; the rest is in the hand of the natives, whom the Spaniards have not yet been able to subdue.

Q. How is the country divided?

A. The river Oronoko separates it into two parts; *Terra Firma* proper, or Golden Castille, in the west; and Guiana, or Caribane, in the east. *Terra Firma* proper contains several provinces, or governments, the largest of which are Panama and Carthagena, in the north, New Andalusia, in the east, and New Granada, in the south. The capital of all *Terra Firma* is Santa-Fé de Bogota, in New Granada. It is an archbishoprick, and the seat of the sovereign tribunal of the whole country.

Q. What cities are there in the government of Panama?

A. The two principal cities are, Panama, a bishoprick, and port-town, on the South Sea, on the isthmus of that name; and Porto-Bello, a sea-port on the gulf of Mexico. Panama is a rich and trading city; it is there they unload all the riches they bring from Peru and Chili, and convey them over the isthmus to Porto-Bello; they are, after that, embarked in the Spanish galleons, which bring the European merchandize to America; there is then a famous fair held at Porto-Bello, which is looked upon as the staple for the traffic of the two worlds. The English were the only people, who, during a time, had the privilege of sending a ship yearly to that fair; they had gained that privilege by the treaty of Assiento, but they have since lost it.

Q. Which is the capital of the government of Carthagena?

A. The city of Carthagena; which is large, rich, and well-fortified; the inhabitants trade chiefly in pearls, which they fish for near the shore. This place was besieged and taken by the French, in 1695, who carried off a considerable booty. The English also besieged it in 1742, but were obliged to leave it, after losing a great many men.

Q. What are the Spanish possessions in New Andalusia?

A. They

A. They are only masters of the coasts of that country; the interior part is inhabited by the natives, who are their formidable enemies. Cumana is the capital.

Q. What is observed of *terra firma* in general?

A. It was for many years infested by a set of pirates, called buccaneers, most of which were French and English; their courage made them formidable: after having taken Porto-Bello, and other places, from the Spaniards, in the northern sea, they crossed the isthmus, and besieged Panama, which they took, under the command of Morgan, their chief; but, at the beginning of the present century, they abandoned their excursions at sea, and are now established in some of the French and English islands, where they turned ox-hunters.

Q. What is Guiana?

A. It is a country only known on the coasts, where the Europeans have some establishments; the natives being still masters of the inland country; they are a savage, cruel, and vindictive people. The French possess the island of Caienne, near the coast of Guiana, called Equinoxial France; the Dutch have rich colonies at Surinam and Berbices, which produce sugar, tobacco, and coffee. The experiments made in 1672, on the weight of the air, by Mr. Richer, have given reason to presume that the earth is rather flattened towards the poles.

LESSON CV.

SOUTH AMERICA continued.

Of PERU, and the Country of the AMAZONS.

Q. WHAT is the situation of Peru?

A. It is the most considerable country of all America; it extends along the coasts of the South Sea, having *terra firma* on the north; the Amazons country on the east; Chili on the south; and the South Sea on the west. It differs in soil and climate: near the sea there are extensive sandy plains, where it never rains; farther up the country they have fertile vales, bounded by a long chain of mountains, called the Cordeliers, which are the highest in the world; they separate into two chains, one east, and the other west; they are overspread with forests, and their summits are always covered with snow. The king of France sent academicians here in 1736, to measure the amplitude of a degree of the meridian on the equator.

Q. What does Peru produce?

A. Its richest productions are gold and silver, of which it contains more than any other part of the world; they have also quicksilver, and many other minerals; and likewise balm, and Peruvian bark.

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The country was formerly governed by very powerful emperors, called Incas of Peru, who had an absolute authority over their subjects. In 1513, a Spaniard, named Vincent Nugnez de Balboa, who was settled at Mexico, undertook to discover the country on the South Sea, and took possession of the isthmus of Darien, in the name of the king of Spain: but he fell a sacrifice to the jealousy of his enemies. Some years after, two other Spaniards, the one named Francis Pizarro, and the other Diego d'Almagro, having been informed that Peru contained immense riches, resolved, in 1524, to attempt the conquest of it. They took advantage of a war which then existed between Athabalipa and Huescar, two brothers, and sons of the last Incas; they assisted the former to vanquish the latter, whom they made prisoner, and put to death; after that they made themselves masters of Athabalipa, put him in irons, and though he had given a roomfull of gold for his ransom, they nevertheless put him also to death, in order to enjoy in quiet the fruits of their barbarity. As soon as they found themselves strong enough, they began to exercise the most unheard of cruelty on the natives, to force their riches from them; but the conquerors, soon after, having different interests, disagreed between themselves, made war on each other, and both perished tragically, according to their deserts.

Q. To whom does Peru belong at present?

A. To the king of Spain, who keeps a governor there, and draws immense sums from thence: nevertheless the whole country is not subject to him, many of the inhabitants having preserved their independence; they inhabit the mountains, obey their chiefs, and are at perpetual war with the Spaniards, in remembrance of their former cruelties. There are great numbers of Spaniards settled at Peru, but they differ greatly, in language and manners, from those of their mother-country. Some of the natives are Roman Catholics, and others idolaters, who worship the sun.

Q. How is Peru divided?

A. Into three governments; which are, Quito in the north; Los Reyes in the middle; and Los Charcas in the south. The capital of all Peru is Lima, in the government of Los Reyes, an archbishoprick, and the residence of the viceroy; it is a large, rich, and populous city. It suffered greatly from an earthquake, in 1747, which demolished a great number of houses, and destroyed the port, called Calao. There is also Cusco, in the east, of the same government, a bishoprick, where the incas formerly resided, and where they had a magnificent, and immensely rich palace, with a superb temple, dedicated to the sun.

Q. What is met with in the government of Quito?

A. There

A. There is Quito, the capital, which is a bishoprick, and a well-built city; besides Gayaquil, a sea port, the staple of trade between Panama and Peru.

Q. What cities are there in the government of Los Charcas?

A. There is Plata, an archbishoprick, capital of the province; and Potosi, near which are the most productive silver mines: these, like all the other mines of Peru, are farmed out to individuals, who explore them at their own expence, and give to the king one fifth of the gold and silver they extract from them.

Q. What is the country of the Amazons?

A. That name is given to the interior part of the country, bounded on the north, by *terra firma*; on the east, by Brazil; by Paraguay, on the south; and by Peru on the west. It is watered by the river Amazon, which rises in Peru, and runs a course, from east to west, of more than eight hundred leagues, and falls into the North Sea. Francis Avellana, a Spaniard, was the first who followed it from its spring to its mouth. M. de la Condamine, a French astronomer, made the same journey in 1746. No other part of the country is known, than that along the river. Orellana gave it the name of the Amazons country, from having met, near the banks of the river, a great number of armed women, who seemed desirous of opposing his passage. The Spaniards have missionaries on the

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upper

upper part of the river, and the Portuguese towards its mouth. They carry on a great slave-trade in that country. The natives are wild and unfociable; they lead a wandering life in the forests, with which the country is covered; they live on the produce of their chase and fishing, and pass their nights in cotton beds, suspended between two trees.

LESSON CVI.

SOUTH-AMERICA continued.

BRAZIL and PARAGUAY.

Q. WHERE is Brazil situated?

A. It lies in the most eastern part of America; extending along the coast of the Northern Sea, having the Amazon country on the west; and Paraguay on the south. The air is pure, and the climate temperate; the soil produces Indian wheat, and various fruits, with sugar, tobacco, cotton, and staining woods, of which there are whole forests; they have also the root ipecacuanha, and rich diamond mines. Alphonfus Cabral, a Portuguese, discovered it by chance, in 1501, and took

took possession of it in the name of his master. The Dutch availing themselves of the revolution which subjected Portugal to the Spaniards, drove the latter out of Brazil : but the Portuguese recovered it in 1655. It is still in the possession of the king of Portugal, who makes great sums of the diamonds, and keeps a viceroy there. But he is only master of the coasts ; the interior parts are still in the power of the natives, who are wild and cruel : they live independent, and have hardly any religion. They eat their prisoners, and are continually employed in hunting and fishing.

Q. How is Brazil divided ?

A. Into northern and eastern coasts, which are joined at Cape St. Augustin. The capital of all the country is San-Salvador, an archbishoprick and sea-port, in All Saints Bay. It is a rich, populous and trading city, the ordinary residence of the Portuguese governor.

Q. What other cities are there in Brazil ?

A. There are several, the chief of which are Saint Sebastian in the middle, which is a bishoprick, on the river Rio-Janeiro, and a very trading city. Olinde or Fernanbouc, in the east, known for those fine woods used by cabinet-makers for their inlaid works ; and Para, a bishoprick in the north, near the mouth of the river of the river of the Amazons. Towards the south of Brazil, and in the inland country, we find the

city of St. Paul, inhabited by fugitive slaves and robbers, whom the Portuguese have not been able destroy, though they have compelled them to pay an annual tribute. They meet with many extraordinary animals in that country; among others that called *pegrittia*, on account of its slow motions. Their coasts abound in fish, among which is the flying-fish.

Q. What is Paraguay?

A. They comprehend under that denomination, all that country which has the Amazons on the north; Brazil on the east; Peru and Chili on the west; and the lands of Magellan on the south. The air is wholesome and temperate; the soil abounds in corn and fruits; their pasture lands are good; and they have a prodigious quantity of cattle. The sugar-cane and cotton grows there; and an herb called paraguay, which they use as tea. They have also gold and silver mines. There are several rivers which unite and form that called Rio de la Plata, or the Silver River, which crosses Paraguay from north to south.

Q. To whom does Paraguay belong?

A. The greatest part belongs to the Spaniards, who discovered it. The Portuguese have some few settlements, and the rest is inhabited by the natives, who are mild and tractable people. It is divided into three principal provinces; Paraguay proper in the north; Tucuman in the west;

west ; and Rio de la Plata in the south. The capital of all the country is Buenos Ayres, a bishoprick, at the mouth of la Plata. It is a trading, and well-built city, the residence of the Spanish governor. The other remarkable cities are, San-Jago, a bishoprick, capital of Tucuman; and Assumption, also a bishoprick, on the river Paraguay, which falls into la Plata. It is to be observed, that the Jesuits had established a great number of missionaries in the center of Paraguay, who had formed several small boroughs, of which they were spiritual and temporal sovereigns ; the inhabitants of these boroughs were entirely subject to the Jesuits, who did not permit them to have any intercourse with the Spaniards, and drew a great revenue from their labour ; but the Jesuits having been expelled from all the Spanish territories, as well as from those of many other powers, they lost their new possessions, and were, with the others, obliged to follow their chiefs into Italy.

LESSON CVII.

SOUTH AMERICA *continued.*

CHILI and the Lands of MAGELLAN.

Q. WHERE is Chili situated ?

A. It lies south of Peru, and extends along the coasts of the South Sea, as far as the Magellanic lands, having Paraguay on the east. The air in general is cold, on account of its vicinity to the Cordeliers. It is warmer in the vallies, which produce corn and wine. They feed numerous herds of cattle ; its chief produce is the purest gold, copper, and woods for staining. They have sheep of an enormous size, which serves as beasts of burden. It was discovered by Diego d'Almagro, one of the conquerors of Peru, in 1539. He took possession of it for the king of Spain, but was not able to reduce the natives entirely, who are hardy and valiant ; they have withdrawn into the interior part of the country, where they obey their caciques, who are perpetually at war with the Spapiards, and have, at different times, gained considerable advantages. They are Pagans, and pay a sort of worship to the Devil, to keep him from doing them hurt.

Q. How

Q. How is Chili divided?

A. Into three provinces; Chili proper, in the north; Chicuito in the east; and the Imperial in the south. They have each of them a governor subject to the viceroy of Peru: the capital of Chili is San-Jago, a bishoprick, in the province of that name. The other cities are the Conception, a bishoprick, in the Imperial; and Baldivia, a sea-port, near which are mines of the purest gold.

Q. What are the lands of Magellan?

A. They comprehend under that denomination all those countries which form the southern point of America, south of Paraguay and Chili. They are thus called because they were discovered by Ferdinand Magellan, who was then seeking, and was the first who found a passage from the north to the south seas. They are cold countries, produce little, and are but thinly inhabited. The eastern coast is entirely destitute of trees, but the pasture lands are excellent;—there are a vast quantity of European bulls and cows, which are daily encreasing. The inhabitants are savages called Patagonians; those who inhabit near Paraguay are very dextrous, and good horsemen. Their chief employ is hunting bulls and cows, which are grown wild; they course for them, and take them with the most astonishing dexterity, and sell their hides to the Spaniards.

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Q. What

Q. What has been remarked of the Patagians?

A. The first navigators who visited that country, reported that they were of a gigantic stature, which has been long a subject of doubt.— But it has been confirmed, by the Squadron sent into the South Sea by the king of England, under the command of Admiral Byron. They have a sort of sheep called Vigon, which gives that fine wool called Spanish wool; and a bird called penguin, which has fins instead of wings. The Spaniards had erected two forts on the coasts, to protect the passage of the strait of Magellan; but as that strait is long and dangerous, they have entirely abandoned them; and now their ships pass that of Le Maire, which lies more to the south.

Q. Are there any islands near those coasts?

A. Very few about South America; the largest are the Malouines, east of the strait of Magellan, on which the Spaniards have a settlement; the island of Chiloe, on the coasts of Chili; and Juan-Fernandez at some distance from the latter.

F I F T H P A R T.

L E S S O N C V I I I.

Of the Lands within the POLAR CIRCLES.

Q. **W**HAT lands remain to be examined?

A. Besides the four parts of the world already described, there are yet some regions, not comprised in the two continents, which are found towards the extremities of the northern and southern parts of the globe. Those regions are called the Polar Lands, or the Unknown World; they are thus denominated because they are not sufficiently known to determine to which continent they belong. Those lands were discovered successively, some by chance, and others by navigators sent in search of them. They have carried their researches much farther towards the north than the south. They are divided into
two

two principal classes; the Arctic Polar Lands in the north; and the Antarctic Polar Lands in the south

Q. Which are the Arctic Lands?

A. The principal are these four; Greenland, Spitzberg, Nova Zembla, and the land of Jesso. Greenland is thus called from the green moss found on its coasts. It is a vast country, situated between Europe and America, and west of Iceland: its boundaries on the north are not known. The coasts of this country were discovered by the Norwegians in the ninth century, who founded a colony there; but having ceased trading with the natives, it was soon destroyed. In the sixteenth century, an Englishman named Forbisher, having undertaken a voyage to Greenland, discovered a part of the country quite different from that already known. From thence it comes, that it is divided into Old and New Greenland. Within a few years the king of Denmark has established a considerable colony in Greenland, and his subjects trade with the natives.

Q. What is the nature of the country?

A. It is a cold climate; the sea is frozen four months in the year: it abounds in pasture: they meet with black and white bears, foxes and martens. The Greenlanders, who in stature resemble the Laplanders, feed on raw fish and flesh; their favourite liquor is whale blubber: they live

live in caverns under-ground, and cloath themselves with the skins of sea-dogs. Near the coasts great numbers of whales are seen continually ; some of which are two hundred feet long. The English, Dutch and Danes, take great quantities of them every year; and of the fat make an oil called blubber.

Q. Where is Spitzberg situated ?

A. It lies north of Lapland ; it is the most northern country yet known. It was discovered by the Dutch towards the end of the sixteenth century. The southern coast, on which they fish for whales, is the only known part of that country. The cold is so excessive, that it has been impossible to penetrate farther : it is not even known whether it is a continent or an island.

Q. What is Nova Zembla ?

A. It is an island north of Russian Tartary, from which it is only separated by the strait of Weigatz. The cold is very great : the Samoiedes a people of Tartary, hunt and fish there in summer. This island was discovered by the Dutch, as they were seeking a passage to the East Indies, through the north, to avoid going round the Cape of Good Hope. Captain Hemskirke passed the winter there in 1596.

Q. What is the land of Jesso ?

A. It is a country that lies east of Asia, and north of Japan. We have learnt by the last discoveries

coveries that it is composed of two islands tributary to the emperor of Japan, and that his subjects trade there for blubber and furs. The Russian navigators have discovered, not long since, a great number of islands, of more or less consequence, which they divide into three classes relatively to their position, which form an archipelago between Asia and America.

Q. What do you call the Antarctic Lands?

A. They are lands very little known, situated south with regard to Europe, and distant from both continents: they are, New Guinea, New Holland, Terra Australis, Terra del Feugo, and New Zealand: they lay in the order here mentioned, from east to west.

Q. Where is New Guinea situated?

A. It lies east of the Molucca islands: the country is so called from the resemblance the natives have with those of Guinea, in Africa. The inland country is not known. Near the coasts the soil is fruitful. The Dutch trade with the natives; but the extent of the country is not known.

Q. What is New Holland?

A. It is a very extensive country, situated south of the Moluccas; it has been discovered in the present century; the inhabitants are blacks, very ill made, and live miserably; the English have a settlement on the eastern coast, called Botany Bay, where they send their convicts.

Q. What

Q. What is the Terra Australis?

A. It is a name given to all the lands situated south of Africa; part of the coasts were discovered, in 1503, by Captain Gonnevillè, who was thrown upon them by a tempest; since that the Europeans have endeavoured to form establishments there, but without success, from the intractable disposition of the natives. A French navigator discovered another coast, in 1734, which he called the Circumcision.

Q. What is the Terra del Feugo?

A. It is an island which lays south of America, from which it is only separated by the strait of Magellan; it was thus named from Magellan having, in the night, seen flames issue, as it were, out of the earth. This island is covered with mountains of an horrid aspect: it is terminated on the south by Cape Horn and the strait of Le Maire, which is now the most frequented passage from the north to the south sea.

Q. What is New Zealand?

A. It is a land in the south, which lies west of Terra del Feugo,—and of which very little is known.

Q. What islands are there in the South Sea?

A. They are in great numbers, but few are known, except those called the Solomon islands. Some French navigators, in 1768, discovered some lands till then unknown,—principally the island of Otaheite, of which the inhabitants are mild

mild and tractable. The English have also made several discoveries in those seas. In the Indian sea we also find the islands of St. Paul and Amsterdam, east of the Cape of Good Hope, which the Dutch visit on their voyages to India.

LESSON CIX.

SEAS and NAVIGATION.

Q. WHAT addition does the description already given require?

A. As geography is a description of all the surface of the globe,—and as that surface is composed of earth and water, we cannot refrain giving a short idea of the sea, and its different parts. All the different seas communicate to each other; so that, properly speaking, there is but one sea, commonly called the Ocean.

Q. Which are its principal parts?

A. We have the Frozen ocean, north of Europe,—the Eastern ocean, east,—and the Indian ocean, south of Asia; the Atlantic ocean, west of Europe and Africa; the North sea, east,—and the South sea, west of America. These different portions

portions of the ocean have also their particular names from the countries whose coasts they water: thus we say, the German sea, the Spanish sea, &c. It is remarked, that some parts of the ocean are lost under-ground; the chief of which are the Mediterranean, the Baltic, the Red and the White seas.

Q. What is the Mediterranean?

A. It is a sea which lies between Europe and Africa; it begins at the strait of Gibraltar; its principal parts are, the gulf of Lyons, the Tuscan sea, the gulf of Venice, and the Archipelago: the sea of Marmora and the Black sea, communicate to the Mediterranean by the straits of Constantinople and Gallipoli.

Q. What is the Baltic?

A. It lies between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland; it begins at the strait of the Sound, and forms three gulfs,—that of Bothnia, in the north,—that of Finland, in the east,—and that of Riga, in the south.

Q. Where is the Red sea?

A. It lies between Asia and Africa; and begins at the strait of Babel Mandel: it has no remarkable gulf, except that of Suez, at the bottom, towards the north.

Q. What is the White sea?

A. It is a gulf situated north of European Russia, and east of Lapland: it has nothing remarkable.

Q. Which are the principal gulfs of the ocean?

A. They are in great numbers; the chief of them are, the gulf of Persia, between Persia and Arabia; that of Bengal, between the two peninsulas of India; the gulf of Mexico, east,—and that of California, west of America.

Q. Which are the principal straits in the ocean?

A. Besides those already spoken of, there are in Europe,—the English channel, between France and England. In Asia,—the straits of Sunda, between the islands of that name,—and the strait of Weigatz, in the north. In Africa,—the strait of Babel Mandel. In America,—the straits of Hudson and Anian, in the north; and that of Magellan, in the south.

Q. What is observed on the waters of the ocean?

A. It is remarked, that they have a periodical rise and fall, which is observed every six hours, and is called the flux and reflux of the sea; others have irregular currents near the coasts, and others form a whirlpool, the most remarkable of which is Maelstrom, in Norway.

Q. How are the winds known at sea?

A. In order to find them with precision, they draw a circle, which they divide into four equal parts, and those are the four cardinal points; they then subdivide each of those into eight, which gives thirty-two equal divisions, which
are

are as many different winds, to which they give names in proportion to their distance from the cardinal points, either east, west, north, or south; the most remarkable winds are those called trade-winds,—which, in some parts, as in the Canary islands, always blow one way; and another, called monsoon, in the Indian sea, which regularly blows six months east and six months west.

Q. By what means is the depth of the sea determined?

A. By means of a weight at the end of a line, which is let down to the bottom, and the line measured after; the weight being first overspread with tallow, in order to know of what nature is the sand; this operation is very requisite, to avoid the rocks and sand-banks on which ships are sometimes wrecked; they make use, with great success, of sea-charts, and the mariner's compass, which serve to direct their course when they have lost sight of land.

Q. Is it possible to sail round the globe?

A. It is not only possible, but has been done several times, by different navigators. A voyage of that kind may be performed in the following manner:

Suppose a ship sets sail from the coasts of France or England, and sails west, to the Canary islands, where it will have the trading winds, which always blow from east to west, and advancing towards the south, will find the coasts of

D d 2

Brazil

Brazil and Paraguay; from thence they will cross from the north to the south sea, going through the strait of Le Maire, and round Cape Horn; after which they will sail up the coasts of Peru and Mexico; and then crossing the south sea, will reach the Philippine and Molucca islands, and so to those of Sunda; and taking advantage of the monsoons, while they blow west, will cross the Indian ocean, and come near to the island of Madagascar, and from thence to the Cape of Good Hope; will set sail along the coasts of Africa to Cape Verd and the Canaries, and from thence to the port from whence they set out. The same may be done by sailing at first to the east instead of the west.

Q. What is further observed?

A. That the Russians have found a passage to the eastern ocean, through the frozen ocean; but the air is so intensely cold, that it is almost impracticable. The best navigators have been seeking, for a long time past, a passage from Europe to the south sea, by the north of America.

LESSON CX.

On the COURSE of the PRINCIPAL RIVERS.

Q. OF what are we to treat in this lesson?

A. As the intimate knowledge of the course of rivers, gives a great insight to that of the interior part of a country, and fixes the exact position of the cities through which they pass, it is necessary to treat of them separately: but we shall here confine ourselves only to the most considerable.

Rivers of ENGLAND.

We have already said that the principal rivers of England are, the Thames, the Severn, and the Humber.

The Thames is a great and navigable river, composed chiefly of the Isis and Thame, of which the Isis is much the largest, and runs the longest course, rising on the confines of Gloucester, S. W. of Cirencester,—becomes navigable at Lechlade,—continues its course to Oxford, where it receives the Charwel,—runs S. E. to Abingdon and Dorchester, where it receives the Thame,—and after visiting many other cities, passes through London, and continues its course to the sea, after receiving the Medway near its mouth. The

Thame, of itself, is a small river, which rises near Tring, in Hertfordshire, and is an unnavigable stream till it receives the Isis at Dorchester.

The Severn takes its rise in Montgomeryshire,—runs east into Shropshire,—passes by Shrewsbury,—turns south,—passes by Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Gloucester, and discharges itself into the Bristol channel; it receives forty rivers in its course, and frequently overflows the countries through which it runs.

The Humber is formed of the Trent, the Ouse, the Derwent, and many other streams; it divides Yorkshire from Lincolnshire, and falls into the German sea at Holderness.

Rivers of SCOTLAND.

The Tay runs from west to east, and divides Scotland into north and south, rising from the loch or lake of Tay, in Breadalbinsshire, running east through Athol,—turns south east,—visits other cities, and falls into the frith of Tay.

The Clyde rises in Annandale, and running north west, through Clydesdale, passes Lanerk, Hamilton and Glasgow; then falls into the frith of Clyde, over against the isle of Bute.

Rivers of IRELAND.

The Shannon is the largest river of Ireland, and rises in the county of Leitrim,—runs north

to south, dividing the provinces of Leinster and Connaught,—then turning south west, runs through the province of Munster,—passes by Limerick, and falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Clare and Limerick, after a course of 143 miles, without including its windings.

Rivers of RUSSIA.

Russia, in Europe, has four capital rivers,—the Wolga, the Dwina, the Don or Tanaïs, and the Nieper.

The Wolga, one of the greatest rivers in Europe, rises in the province of Kzeva,—runs from west to east,—passes by Twer, Jeroslaw, and Casan,—then directs its course south, and falls into the Caspian sea below Astracan.

The Dwina is formed by the junction of two rivers near Ostioug,—runs from south to north, and falls into the White sea, at Archangel, before which it divides into two branches.

The Don issues from the lake Iwan, south of Moscow, runs at first from north to south,—then from west to east,—and afterwards takes its former direction, and falls, by three branches, into the sea of Asoph, a little above the city of that name.

The Neiper takes its rise in the south of Russia,—runs from north to south,—crosses the eastern part of Lithuania,—waters the cities of Smolensko and Kiow,—then falls into the Black Sea, at some distance from Oczakow.

Rivers of POLAND.

The principal rivers of Poland are the Bog, the Neister, the Vistula, and the Niemen.

The Bog takes its rise in the north of Podolia, which it crosses, and falls into the Black Sea, in the south, between the Nieper and the Neister.

The Neister rises in the mountains of Crapacs,—runs south,—separates Poland from Moldavia,—visits Bender and Belgorod, and falls into the Black Sea, near the latter of those cities.

The Vistula, or Wesel, rises in the mountains south of Silesia,—runs first east, passing by the city of Cracow,—turns north, and passes by Warsaw, and continues its course in the same direction till it falls into the Baltic, below Dantzick.

The Niemen arises in Lithuania,—at first runs from east to west,—turns towards the north,—visits Grodno and Towno, and then discharges itself by several branches into the Baltic.

Rivers of BOHEMIA.

The principal rivers of Bohemia are the Moldaw, the Elbe, the Oder, and the Morave.

The Moldaw crosses the greatest part of Bohemia proper from north to south,—visits Prague, and falls into the Elbe, near Milnick.

The Elbe has its source in Bohemia, on the frontiers of Silesia,—runs first from north to south,—

south,—then takes a contrary direction, and enters Germany,—waters Dresden, Wirtembourg, Magdebourg, and Hambourg, and at last, by several branches, falls into the ocean.

The Oder takes its rise in the Carpathian mountains, on the confines of Hungary,—runs from north to south through the greatest part of Silesia,—visits Breslaw and Francfort,—enters Pomerania, which it separates into two parts,—passes by Stettin,—forms several branches above that city, and discharges itself into the Baltic.

The Morave rises in the county of Glatz,—crosses Moravia from north to south, and falls into the Danube, at some leagues from Presburgh.

Rivers of GERMANY.

The principal rivers in Germany are the Danube, the Rhine, the Weser, the Elbe, and the Oder. We have already described the two latter.

The Danube, the largest river in Europe, has its source at Donesching, in Swabia, and runs from west to east,—visits several cities in its course, both in Bavaria and Austria, viz. Ulm, Donawert, Ingoldstat, Ratisbon, Passau, and Vienna, as well as Belgrade, in Servia:—after which it crosses Hungary and the northern part of Turkey; and after having received many
rivers

rivers in its course, divides into several branches, and enters the Black Sea.

The Rhine takes its rise in the country of the Grisons, in Switzerland,—crosses the lake of Constance,—forms a cataract near the city of Schaffhausen, which it visits, as it does also Basil, Mentz, and Cologne,—takes its course directly north,—crosses the circles of the Lower Rhine and Westphalia,—enters the United Provinces, where it separates into five branches, the least of which only retains the name of the Rhine, and loses itself in the sands below Leyden.

The Weser rises in the circle of Franconia, and is formed near Munden, by the rivers Verra and Fulda. It waters the city of Bremen—then runs toward the north, and falls into the German Sea.

Rivers of HUNGARY.

The remarkable rivers of Hungary are the Drave, the Save, and the Teisse,—all of them fall into the Danube. The Drave takes its rise in Stiria, and separates Hungary from Sclavonia. The Save rises in Carniola, which it crosses from west to east. The Teisse has its source in the mountains Crapaes, and runs from north to south.

River of SAVOY.

Savoy has but one remarkable river, which is the Isere. It rises in the Tarantese,—waters the cities

cities of Moutiers, Montmelian, and Grenoble, in Dauphiné, and discharges itself into the Rhone, above Valence.

Rivers of SWITZERLAND.

The chief rivers in Switzerland are the Rhine, the Rhone, the Aar, and the Reufs. The first has been described in the article of Germany.

The Rhone rises in the mountain la Fourche; it first runs from east to west,—crosses the Valais, and then the lake of Geneva,—is lost for more than a league under-ground,—appears again near Seyffel,—separates Bresse from Dauphiné,—enters France,—takes its course toward the south,—crosses the provinces of Lyons Dauphiné, and Provence, and falls into the Mediterranean west of Marseilles.

The Aar issues from Grimselberg,—crosses the lakes of Brientz and Thoun,—receives the Reufs and the Limmat,—waters the cities of Berne and Soleure, and falls into the Rhine opposite Valdschut.

The Reufs rises in mount St. Gothard,—enters the lake of the four cantons,—visits Lucerne, and falls into the Aar near Windisch.

Rivers of the LOW COUNTRIES.

The Low Countries are watered by three capital rivers, the Maese, the Scheld, and the Sambre.

The

The Maese has its source in Lorraine, and directs its course towards the north,—visits the cities of Verdun, Sedan, Liege, and Maestricht. It enters twice one of the branches of the Rhine, and forms the island of Bommel,—then separates into two branches below Dordrecht, one of which forms the port of Rotterdam, and discharges itself into the German Sea.

The Scheld shews itself near Catelet, in Picardy,—passes Cambrai, Valenciennes, Tournay, Ghent and Antwerp;—from thence it continues its course towards the north,—separates into two branches, one runs east by Bergem-op-Zoom, and the other west, and separates Dutch Flanders from Zealand,—forms the Hont;—soon after which they both are lost in the ocean.

The Sambre rises also in Picardy,—visits Landrecy, Maubeuge and Charleroi,—then falls into Maese at Namur.

Rivers of LORRAINE.

Lorraine has two principal rivers, the Maese, already described, and the Moselle, which issues from Mount Faucilla, which is one of the mountains of Vosgue,—passes by Toul, Mentz, Thionville and Treves,—then falls into the Rhine near Coblentz.

Rivers of FRANCE.

The most remarkable rivers of France are the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Rhone,

Rhone,—the latter has been described among those of Switzerland.

The Seine rises near the borough of Seine, in Burgundy, and runs from east to west,—crosses Champagne, the isle of France, and Normandy,—visits the cities of Troyes, Paris and Rouen,—then falls into the English channel at Havre de Grace.

The Loire has its source in the mountains of Vivarez,—it runs towards the west, and crosses several provinces of the kingdom, as the Nivernois, the Orleanois, part of Anjou and Brittany, visits the cities of Nevers, Orleans, Blois, Tours, Saumur, and Nantes, and falls into the ocean a little below the latter.

The Garonne rises in the Pyrenees, and crosses part of Guienne, receives the Dordogne, and does not, till then, take the name of the Garonne; it visits Thoulouse, Agen, and Bourdeaux, and then enters the ocean, after forming two branches.

Rivers of PORTUGAL.

The rivers common to Portugal and Spain are, the Douro, the Minho, the Tagus, and the Guadiana.

The Douro rises in Old Castille, which it traverses from east to west, as it does also the kingdom of Leon; after which it enters Portugal, visits the city of Miranda, and falls into the ocean near Oporto.

The

The Minho takes its rise in Galicia, which it waters from north to south, separates that province from Portugal, and enters the ocean below Tui.

The source of the Tagus is in the eastern extremity of Arragon; it traverses all New Castille, from east to west, enters Portugal, waters Estramadura, forms a bay opposite Lisbon, and then falls into the ocean: in its course it visits Toledo, Alcantara, and Santaren.

The Guadiana rises in New Castille, and directs its course towards the south,—traverses Spanish Estramadura, enters Portugal near the city of Badajos, separates the kingdom of Algarva from Andalusia, and runs into the ocean.

Rivers of SPAIN.

The rivers appropriated to Spain are the Guadalquivir and the Ebro.

The Guadalquivir rises in the eastern part of Andalusia, which it crosses entirely; drawing towards the south, it visits the cities of Cordova and Seville, and then enters the ocean, by two branches, near St. Lucar.

The source of the Ebro is in a mountain, which separates the Asturias from Old Castille; it directs its course from west to east, borders Biscay and Navarre, crosses Arragon, visits the cities of Saragossa and Tortosa;—and then falls into the Mediterranean.

Rivers

Rivers of ITALY.

The principal of rivers of Italy are, the Pô, the Adde, the Adige, the Tessin, the Arno, and the Tiber.

The Pô issues from mount Viso, one of the Alps; it runs from west to south, and receives many rivers in its course; it crosses the Montferrat, the Mantuan, and the Ferrarois, and falls into the gulf of Venice by different channels. In its course it visits Turin, Casal, Placentia, and Cremona.

The Adige rises in the country of the Grisons, crosses the lake of Côme, and falls into the Pô, between Placentia and Cremona.

The Adde has its source in the north of Tirol, crosses the bishoprick and city of Trent, and also a part of the states of Venice; visits the cities of Verona and Ravigo, and falls into the gulf of Venice towards the east.

The Tessin has its source near Mount St. Gothard in Switzerland, crosses the lake Maggiore, and, running from north to south, visits Pavia, and then unites its waters with those of the Pô.

The Arno issues from the Appenine mountains, runs from east to west, crosses the grand dutchy of Tuscany, visits Florence and Pisa, and loses itself in the Tuscan sea.

The Tiber also rises in the Appenines, crosses the states of the church, directing its course from north to south, and afterwards west; it passes near
Perouse

Perouse and Orvietta, visits Rome, and discharges itself in the Mediterranean at Ostia.

Rivers of TURKEY in EUROPE.

Turkey in Europe has two principal rivers, the Danube, already described, and the Marizza; the latter issues from mount Hemus, runs from north to south, crosses all Romania, visits Adrianople, and falls into the Archipelago.

Rivers of ASIATIC TURKEY.

Asiatic Turkey has two remarkable rivers; the Tigris, and the Euphrates.

The Tigris rises in Turcomania, runs south all the length of Diarbeck,—visits the cities of Diar-bekir, Mosul, Bagdad, and Bassora, and falls, by several channels, into the gulf of Persia;—supposed to be one of the rivers which encompassed Paradise.

The Euphrates has its source in the mountains of Armenia, near the city of Erzerum; runs west of Diarbeck, and unites its waters with those of the Tigris, below Bassora.

Rivers of INDIA.

In Indostan there are two great rivers; the Indus, and the Ganges.

The Indus takes its rise in Mount Caucasus, runs from north to south, crosses all the Mogul empire, and falls, by seven channels, into the ocean.

The

The Ganges rises in the mountains of Great Thibet, runs from north to south, divides India into two peninsulas, receives in its course many other rivers, and enters also, by many channels, into the ocean, or Indian sea.

Rivers of CHINA.

The principal rivers of China are the Hoang, and the Kiang.

The Hoang rises in a desert, west of China, which it crosses from west to east, and then discharges itself into the sea.

The Kiang also rises in the west of China, and runs through the middle of it, turning towards the east, and then enters the sea.

Rivers of TARTARY.

In Great Tartary there are four considerable rivers; the Oby; the Jenisea, the Lena, and the Amur.

The Oby takes its rise in the south of Russian Tartary, which it crosses from south to north; it serves as a boundary between Europe and Asia, and discharges itself into the Frozen Ocean, near the strait of Weigatz.

The Jenisea runs from south to north, crosses also Russian Tartary, east of Oby, and has its mouth in the Frozen ocean.

The Lena runs in the same direction as the two preceding, east of the Jenisea.

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The

The Amur rises in Chinese Tartary, which it crosses from west to east, and falls into the gulf of Amur, which is the oriental ocean.

Rivers of AFRICA.

The principal rivers of Africa are, the Nile, the Niger, the Senegal, and the Zara.

The Nile, according to some geographers, rises in the mountains of Abyssinia; and, according to others, in those of the moon; it runs from south to north, traversing Egypt in all its length; and forming several cataracts, visits the cities of Souene, Girge, Cairo, Rosetta, and Damietta, and falls, by two channels, into the Mediterranean.

The Niger, which gives its name to Nigritia, —crosses that country from west to east—and loses itself in the lake of Bornou.

The Senegal, which also waters Nigritia, runs from east to west, and has its mouth in the ocean.

The Zara, whose source is unknown, crosses Northern Congo, and running from east to west, falls into the ocean.

Rivers of AMERICA.

North America has two great rivers; St. Lawrence and Mississippi.

St. Lawrence, in Canada, crosses that country from west to east, drawing towards the north,—receives in its course a great number of smaller rivers,
—forms

—forms many cataracts,—visits the cities of Montreal and Quebec,—and falls into the gulph of St. Lawrence, which is a part of the Northern Sea.

The source of the Mississippi is unknown;—that river runs from north to south,—crosses the western part of Canada and Louisiana,—then discharges itself in the gulf of Mexico.

Rivers of SOUTH-AMERICA.

In South America there are three large rivers; the Oronoko, the River of the Amazons, and Rio de la Plata.

The Amazons river rises in Peru,—runs first towards the north, and turns afterwards to the east;—it crosses the Amazons country in all its extent,—and in its course, of more than eight hundred leagues, receives a great number of lesser rivers,—and then falls into the ocean, near cape North.

The Oronoko crosses *terra firma* from south to north,—separates Golden Castille from Guiana,—and loses itself in the Northern Sea.

Rio de la Plata, or the Silver River, crosses all Paraguay from north to south—receives the rivers Paraguay, Parana, and Uruga,—visits the city of Assumption, and discharges itself into the ocean below Buenos-Ayres.

END OF MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

ABSTRACT OF THE SPHERE.

LESSON I.

General Idea, and Principles of the SPHERE.

Q. **W**HAT is the sphere?

A. The sphere is an instrument, composed of several pasteboard circles, and intended to represent the motions of the celestial bodies, and their reciprocal positions with respect to the earth.

Q. What is understood by the study of the sphere?

A. It consists in the knowledge of its different parts,—of its utility,—and of the reasons for which it was invented.

Q. Of what use is that science?

A. It not only enriches the mind with the knowledge of things curious in themselves, but tends also to the perfection of geography and navigation:

it

it moreover serves to resolve the most interesting phenomena.

Q. Why is the study of the sphere subjoined to that of geography?

A. Because the former gives a more exact knowledge of the earth; and determines, with greater precision, the situation of its different parts.

Q. What is the principal object of that study?

A. The end proposed by that science called the sphere, is the observation and representation of the various motions of the celestial bodies; and to examine the advantages that may be drawn from thence, with regard to the globe we inhabit.

Q. What is astronomy?

A. We call astronomy that science which treats of the planets, and, in general, of all celestial bodies, of which the elements, or principles are contained in the sphere.

Q. Does it not make part of another science?

A. Yes; it constitutes parts of a science called cosmography, which describes all created bodies.

Q. Is it an ancient science?

A. Very ancient:—The Chaldeans were the first people who applied themselves to it; it is to them we owe the invention of the zodiack, and the assemblage of the stars into constellations.—We shall say more of this in the sequel.

Q. Who were the people that improved it after them?

A. The Egyptians next applied themselves to astronomy, and after them the Phœnicians; who, being the first that ventured on the sea, directed their attention to the planets, and particularly to the polar star, for the use of navigation.

Q. Who was the first philosopher who cultivated astronomy?

A. Thales, the Miletian; he enriched the country with the intelligence he had acquired from the orientals, and rendered himself famous by the prediction of a solar eclipse.

Q. Who were the people who afterwards distinguished themselves in that study?

A. The Europeans applied to it with great diligence and success, especially in the present and last century, in which very important discoveries have been made.

Q. Name me some of the most eminent astronomers?

A. Those who have acquired the most fame are, Ptolemeus, who lived in the time of the emperor Adrian; Copernicus, a Prussian; Gallileo, a Florentine; Tycho-Brahé, a Dane; all in the sixteenth century; Cassini, La Hire, Huyghens, and a great number of others in this.

Q. How is the universe divided by Astronomers?

A. It is considered relatively to astronomy, as divided into two separate parts; viz. the celestial world, which comprehends the heavens, with the stars

stars and planets; and the terrestrial, or sublunary world, which is that on which we were placed.

Q. How are those parts represented?

A. By the terrestrial and celestial globes, made use of by astronomers, "to facilitate the intelligence of their axioms.

Q. What are the heavens?

A. We conceive the heavens as an extensive space, which surrounds and contains all the bodies under the creation. The azure colour which strikes our eyes, can only be attributed to the immensity of space between the heavens and us, the bounds of which have not yet been ascertained.

Q. What figure are the heavens supposed to have?

A. Astronomers conceive them to be a round concave space, because the infinite interval between us and the stars, makes them appear all equally distant from our eye, and placed in a concave sphere, of which our earth is the center.

Q. How ought this abridgment of the sphere to be divided?

A. In order to give it its due extent, it is necessary to divide it into three principal parts.

First,—By giving a general idea of all the celestial bodies, according to the principles and observations of astronomers, and as far as it may be necessary for the end we have proposed.

Secondly,—To examine more minutely that instrument called the sphere, and shew in what man-

ner the most interesting phenomena may be rendered perceptible, by the help of that instrument.

Thirdly and lastly,—To shew the many advantages with which those discoveries may be attended, for the advancement of geography and navigation.

PART I.

Of CELESTIAL BODIES.

LESSON II.

On Celestial Bodies in general, and of the fixed Stars.

Q. By what means has the knowledge of the celestial bodies been acquired?

A. Astronomers have not only made themselves acquainted with those bodies, but also of all their phenomena, by the constant and indefatigable observations they have made on them; and from which they have drawn consequences. These observations may be disposed in two classes; the first named natural or common, because they may be put in practice by almost every capacity: the other particularly reserved for astronomers, who have made

made these second observations in consequence of the first.—For example, the rising and setting of the sun is a common observation; and the motion of the celestial bodies round their axis, is an astronomical observation.

Q. What do you understand by celestial bodies?

A. I mean the sun, moon and stars, which shine in the heavens.—The stars may be considered, in consequence of their number, size, motion and the light they emit.—Ptolomeus, and the ancient astronomers, reckoned only 1022 stars, which they discovered with the naked eye; but since the invention of the telescope, a much greater number has been discovered. Since navigation has explored countries till then unknown, the number has been greatly encreased; at present 1200 stars are seen without the aid of instruments; but only one half, at most, are seen at one view.

Q. Are there not some extraordinary stars?

A. There are some which only appear at certain regular times and seasons: others, called comets, which, after having been visible some time, gradually disappear, or remove at a greater distance from the earth.—For a long time comets were thought to forebode some public calamity; but now we have all reason to believe, they have their periodical course like the other stars.

Q. How are the stars known and discerned?

A. In

A. In order to attain that knowledge, astronomers have collected a certain number of stars into one body, to which they have given the name of constellation, and each constellation has its particular name;—Those names which are purely arbitrary, have been taken from the fables of the heathens, or the rusticity of our forefathers. Thence proceed those figures under which the constellations are represented on the celestial globe.—The ancients knew but fifty-two constellations, but now sixty-two are known; twenty-three north, and twenty-seven south; the other twelve are found in the zodiac; the last are the most interesting for the globe we inhabit, and we shall speak more at length of them in the second part of this work.

Q. What is observed on the light of the stars?

A. All the stars have not an equal splendour, some appear clouded; and we observe in the heavens a white path, which the ancients called the milky-way; but by the use of the telescope, it has been found, that this path is a numerous assemblage of stars, which are not separately discernible on account of their proximity. Astronomers divide the stars into six classes, relatively to their magnitude; they say that a star is of the first, second, &c. but this division is only apparent, and founded on the degree of vivacity, with which they are resplendent.

Q. Which are those that appear the largest?

A. The

A. The most remarkable are Sirius, or the Dog-star, which is the largest and most beautiful of all; the Bull's-eye, Venus, Regulus, &c. Astronomers frequently make use of these for their observations. As to the motion of the stars, though they seem continually to move from east to west, there are some who keep the same order between them, and others which change their situation. For this reason we call fixed stars those which always keep at the same distance from each other; and we call planets, or roving stars, those which do not keep that order, either between themselves, or with regard to the fixed stars.

Q. What difference do you observe as to their light?

A. That the light of the fixed stars is bright and sparkles; whereas that of the planets is soft and quiet. As the fixed are at a very great distance from our globe, they are supposed all placed in what we call the firmament, where they form the constellations aforesaid.

Q. Have the fixed stars absolutely no motion?

A. By comparing the observations of the ancient and modern astronomers, it has been found that they retrograde a little to the east, but only fifty seconds in a year.

Q. Are the planets marked upon the globes?

A. As they do not keep the same relative position, and not being able to ascertain them a place, they are not marked on the globe.

Q. How

Q. How many planets do you reckon ?

A. Six ; Venus, Mercury, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter and Saturn.—They place the Sun among the planets, because it seems to have the same motion. As it has been observed that some planets were eclipsed by others, it is reasonably imagined that they are not equally distant from us.—Astronomers place the planets in the order as above, beginning with that which is nearest the earth.

Q. What order do they take with regard to the sun ?

A. Mercury and Venus being nearer the Sun than our globe, are called inferior planets ; Mars, Jupiter and Saturn being more distant, are called superior : then comes, though at an immense distance, the fixed stars and constellations ; and when they say that the Sun is in such or such a constellation, it signifies that we see the sun opposite that constellation, or that it occupies a space between us and the constellation.

LESSON III.

Of the PLANETS.

Q. WHAT is the sun ?

A. The sun is a luminous body, that is to say, that it produces light and heat, without the assistance

ance of any other.—The strongest eye cannot fix it; for which reason it cannot be observed even with the telescope, without previously blacking the glass with smoke.—Certain spots of different dimensions have been remarked on its surface, which prove that it revolves on its axis in about twenty-seven days.

Q. What happens sometimes with regard to the sun?

A. It sometimes happens that in the day-time, and with a clear sky, we are deprived of the light of the sun, at times entirely, and at others only in part, for more or less time; and then they say, we have an eclipse of the sun.

Q. When does that happen?

A. That never takes place but when the moon happens to be precisely between the sun and the earth; and consequently hinders the light of the sun from reaching our globe.

Q. What is the moon?

A. The moon is an opaque, or dark body, which has in itself no light. Its distance from the earth is much less than that of any other planet: it has several large spots which may be seen with the naked eye.

Q. Do we always see the moon in the same manner?

A. No; we sometimes see only a portion or part of an enlightened border, which is called the crescent, and which gradually encreases till its whole

whole circle appears illuminated ; then it is called the full moon, or the opposition ; after which, that enlightened part decreases daily, till it becomes invifible ; then it is called the new moon or conjunction.

Q. What consequences do you draw from thence ?

A. Thefe observations prove that the moon receives its light from the fun ; and that one half of it is always illuminated, which half is not always turned towards us ; and, in fhort, that the moon continually changes its pofition, with regard to the fun and the earth. We alfo remark that the moon does not turn on its axis ; that the days and nights are equally long, and that each of them meafures half a lunar month.

Q. Are there not alfo eclipses of the moon ?

A. Yes ; and they happen when the earth is precifely between the fun and the moon, its fhadow falls upon that planet, and hinders it from receiving the light of the fun, which makes it appear either in part or totally dark to our eye.

Q. At what time do we fee eclipses ?

A. We never fee eclipses of the moon but when it is in its full ; nor thofe of the fun but in the new moon : the firft are much more frequent than the fecond, becaufe the moon is lefs than the earth, which has been furnifhed from the duration and frequency of its eclipses, as alfo that the earth is much lefs than the fun.

Q. What is known of Mercury ?

A. Its vicinity to the sun, in whose rays it is continually seen, is the reason why the observations made on that planet are very imperfect.

Q. What is Venus ?

A. That planet, which is easily known by its size, and whitish light, appears night and morning; for which reason it is called Phosphorus and Hesperus.—It has its phases like the moon, and several spots on its surface.

Q. What is Mars ?

A. Mars is known from the other planets by its red colour: it has also spots, and its phases like Venus.

Q. What has been observed of Jupiter ?

A. That planet has stripes of a much lighter colour than the rest of its surface, and has a complete rotation on its axis in ten hours; and what is still more remarkable, it has four small stars which turn continually round it, and for that reason are called the satellites or moons of Jupiter.

Q. What is remarked of Saturn ?

A. Saturn has also five satellites which turn round it, and is besides encompassed by a ring, which makes it appear under different forms.

Q. What conclusion do you draw from these observations ?

A. We infer from thence, that the five planets Venus, Mars, Mercury, Jupiter and Saturn, are opaque bodies, like the moon and the earth; and that

that they have no light but that which they borrow from the sun.

Q. What do you observe on the light of the fixed stars ?

A. That there is not the least doubt of their being luminous bodies; and that they cannot receive any from the sun, on account of their immense distance from it, and from the earth.

PART II.

The SPHERE, and its PARTS.

LESSON IV.

Of the SPHERE in general.

Q. HOW do astronomers divide the Sphere ?

A. Into natural and artificial, or armillary.—

The natural is the Universe itself,—and the artificial is that instrument of which we have been speaking, and which serves as a representative of the first, in the manner it appears to our eye.

Q. What are we to observe first ?

A. The first thing to be observed is, that the circles and points on this instrument are pure inventions,

ventions, imagined to render the motions and revolutions of the stars more palpable to our senses.

Q. Why was it found necessary to imagine those points?

A. By reason, that as the heavens and the earth appear to us in spherical forms, it would not have been possible to divide the heavens, nor find any determined position, without the help of those circles.

Q. What are the terms made use of in that science?

A. As all those terms are borrowed from geometry, it is necessary to define them here, for the intelligence of those who are not familiar in that science.

Q. What is a straight line and a curve line?

A. A line is called straight when all its component parts follow the same direction. It is a curve line when those same parts have each a different direction.

Q. What is a perpendicular and what an oblique line?

A. A straight line which falls upon another, is called a perpendicular, when it does not incline more to one end than to the other,—and it is oblique when it does incline.

Q. What are parallel lines?

A. Two lines either straight or curve, are parallel, when all the corresponding parts of the

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one are at an equal distance from the corresponding parts of the other.

Q. What is a circle?

A. It is a curve line, whose different parts are perfectly uniform, and whose extremities meet; the whole of which is called circumference.

Q. What is an arc, or segment?

A. It is a portion of a circle, of more or less extent.

Q. What is the center of a circle?

A. It is a point equally distant from all those of the circumference.

Q. What is the diameter?

A. It is a straight line which passes through the center, and whose ends terminate at the circumference.

Q. What is the radius?

A. It is half the diameter, from the center to the circumference.

Q. What is the axis of a circle?

A. It is a straight line, which passes through the center, and is perpendicular to the plan of the circle.

Q. What are the poles of a circle?

A. They are the extremities of the axis, or two points taken out of the circle itself, equally distant from all the points of the circumference.

Q. How is the circumference divided?

A. The circumference of a circle, great or small, is divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees,

degrees, each degree is subdivided into sixty minutes, and every minute into sixty seconds:

Q. What is an angle?

A. An angle is composed of two lines, which have different directions, and that meet in one point.

Q. How is an angle measured?

A. The size of an angle does not depend on the length of the lines which compose it, but of its opening; it is measured by the number of the degrees of the arc, or that part of the circumference contained between the two lines.

Q. How many sorts of angles are there?

A. Three; the right angle, which measures a quadrant, or quarter of the circle, or ninety degrees; the acute angle, which measures less than the right angle; and the obtuse angle, which measures more than the right.

Q. What is to be remarked on that?

A. That all right angles are necessarily equal between them; but acute and obtuse angles may vary as to their opening, without ceasing to be either acute or obtuse.

Q. Which is the first astronomical observation?

A. The first remark is, that the heavens, with all the celestial bodies, move, or seem to move in a circular and regular manner, and that they revolve in twenty-four hours. It is also observed, that the stars trace circles more or less large, as they are more or less distant from two fixed

points in the heavens, called the poles of the world.

Q. How is the sphere contrived?

A. In consequence of those observations, the artificial sphere is so contrived as to turn on its own axis; and when put in motion, every point of its surface will be remarked to describe circles, two only excepted, which remain motionless.

Q. What is the first use of the sphere?

A. The use of it in general, is to shew that motion of the stars called diurnal,—because it operates daily; and common, because they all appear subjected to it.

Q. How is the earth represented?

A. By a little ball, placed in the center of the machine; because that it appears, from the judgment of our senses, to be placed in the center of the universe?

Q. Are we not in this deceived by our senses?

A. If we are, the error proceeds from the very small dimensions of the globe we inhabit, when compared with the vast extent of the whole universe; but that error is rectified, by only changing reciprocally the places of the sun and the earth.

Q. What further observations on that subject?

A. Whether the stars turn round the earth, or that the earth turns on its own axis in a contrary direction, which is now generally believed, the appearances in the heavens are the same, and the demonstrations on the sphere are not less certain.

LESSON

LESSON V.

On the POINTS of the SPHERE.

Q. WHAT is to be considered on the sphere?

A. Besides the axis of the world, we are to consider the various points and circles of which that instrument is composed.

Q. What is the axis of the world?

A. It is an imaginary line, which, passing through the center of the universe, joins the two immovable points of the heavens already remarked. It is represented by a brazen wire, round which the sphere turns, as on an axle-tree.

Q. What are the extremities of that axis?

A. They are those two immovable points in the heavens, called the Poles; it has been remarked, that one of those points was placed near a constellation, called the Little Bear, because that one of the stars which compose it, describes but a very small circle; from whence it has been inferred, that one of the two poles was in the center of that circle.

Q. How is that pole called?

A. It is called the Arctic Pole, from the Greek word *arctos*, which signifies a bear; it is also called the Northern or Septentrional Pole, because the little bear is composed of seven stars, which the Romans called *septem triones*.

Q. Where is the other pole?

A. After one was fixed, it was easy to determine the position of the other, when considered that it ought to be in direct opposition to the first, and half a circumference, or ninety degrees distant.

Q. How is that pole called?

A. The Antarctic Pole, which signifies opposite to the arctic; it is also called the Southern, or Meridional, because that at noon the sun is always seen on that side.

Q. What other points are observed on the sphere?

A. There are two other points,—one of which marks the place where the stars rise,—and the other that where they set. Those two points are always directly opposite each other.

Q. What do you mean by the rising and setting of the stars?

A. A star is said to rise, when, by its diurnal motion, it begins to appear to us; and it is set, when it has totally disappeared.

Q. How do you call those points where the stars rise and set?

A. The place where they rise is called the east, and the other west; those points are marked on the sphere, one quadrant, or ninety degrees distant from the poles.

Q. Are those points always the same?

A. As

A. As it has been observed that the sun and the planets do not always appear to rise and set opposite the same fixed stars, we have been obliged to distinguish two different places under the same denominations of east and west. We call the summer east and west, those points nearest the arctic pole,—and the east and west of winter, those nearest the antarctic pole. It is the reverse of that for those who inhabit the southern part of the globe.

Q. What name is given to the four points united?

A. The east and west points, and the two poles, are called the four cardinal points, because they determine the position of all the others.

Q. How are they found?

A. If you suppose a man turned towards the north, (a position easily found,) he will have the east at his right, the west at his left, and behind him the south.

Q. What other points do you remark on the sphere?

A. There are two points, called the Zenith and the Nadir; the first placed perpendicularly over every persons head,—and the second under his feet, in direct opposition to the first.

Q. What do you observe of the zenith?

A. When we say that a star passes our zenith, it signifies that at a certain determined instant, that star passes perpendicularly over our heads.

Q. What must we infer from what has been said?

A. That the two poles are constantly invariable; that the east and west vary in proportion as we advance towards either of them; and that our zenith changes at every step we make.

LESSON VI.

On the Circles of the SPHERE.

Q. How many sorts of circles are there in the sphere?

A. As it has been observed that the stars delineate circles, more or less large in proportion to their distance from the poles, two sorts of circles have been distinguished on the sphere, the one called the great, and the other the small circles.

Q. How are those circles distinguished?

A. The great circles are those which have the same center as the sphere, and which divide it into two equal parts. The small circles have not the same center, and divide it into unequal portions.

Q. Of

Q. Of how many circles is the sphere composed?

A. Of ten, six great and four small. The six great circles are the horizon, the meridian, the zodiac, the equator, and the two colures. The horizon and the meridian are represented as immovable. The others are moveable, and turn within the first. The four small circles are the two tropics, and the two polar circles,

Q. What width have those circles?

A. They are all to be considered as being very narrow, except the zodiac, to which astronomers have given a greater width, for a reason we shall adduce hereafter.

Q. What is the horizon?

A. The horizon, thus called from a Greek word which signifies to terminate, is a great circle which separates the sphere into two parts, or hemispheres: the one superior and visible, the other inferior, and invisible to us.

Q. How many horizons do astronomers discern?

A. Two; the astronomical, or celestial horizon, which is also called the rational; the other, terrestrial, or sensible, which bounds our view every way at sea, or in an extensive plain; the greatest extent of which is calculated to be about sixty geographical miles. Its poles are the Zenith and Nadir,

Q. What

Q. What is the position of the sensible horizon?

A. It is always parallel to the rational, and distant from it by half the diameter of the earth.

Q. Of what use is the rational horizon?

A. It fixes the moment of the rising and setting of the stars. We begin to perceive them as soon as they are above that circle, or in the superior hemisphere; and become invisible to us as soon as they are below the horizon, or in the inferior hemisphere.

Q. What other advantages are derived from that circle?

A. It divides the artificial day into two equal or unequal parts;—it determines the diurnal and nocturnal arches, or the length of the days and nights. It is on this circle that are marked the four cardinal points.

Q. What is the natural and artificial day?

A. Astronomers reckon the natural day from the moment the sun rises, to that when it appears again in the same place, after having completed its revolution, which it performs in twenty-four hours. The artificial day is the time in which we enjoy the light of the sun, or that time which it remains above the horizon; it varies with the seasons, and the different parts of the globe we inhabit.

Q. What is the meridian?

A. It

A. It is a large circle which passes through the poles of the world, and divides the sphere into two equal portions, one east and the other west.

Q. Why is it thus called?

A. Because it marks noon, or half the day; and midnight, or half the night, for all the inhabitants of the earth. So that this circle determines half the space in which the sun or the stars move, from the moment of their rising to that of their setting. The meridian also serves to mark the utmost elevation of the stars on the horizon, which happens when they are under that circle. In fine, it is by the meridian we find the different elevations of the pole for every part of the globe; because that those elevations are measured on an arch of that circle, as we shall see hereafter.

Q. Is there but one meridian?

A. Every place on the earth has its particular meridian; but it must be observed, that we are always under the same meridian if we travel in a direct line from one pole to the other. On the contrary, we change our meridian at every step, when we go from east to west; which proves that those who live east of us have noon before us, and that we have it sooner than those who live more west; which also shews that the meridian may serve to measure time and distances.

LESSON VII.

The Circles continued.

Q. WHAT is the zodiac?

A. It is one of the great circles, sixteen degrees broad, which surrounds, and cuts the sphere obliquely.

Q. Why was this circle imagined?

A. The reasons why this circle is become necessary on the sphere, are founded on three important observations, made by the astronomers on the motions of the planets.

Q. What are those observations?

A. The first is, that the sun and the other planets have, besides their motion from east to west, one which makes them retrograde towards the east, with more or less velocity, but always in a regular manner. That motion has been ascertained by observing, that a planet which, on a certain day, had set at the same time as some remarkable fixed stars, was seen to set later a few days after; which proves the retrogradation of the planets towards the west.

Q. What is the second observation?

A. That the planets are not always at the same distance from the poles, but that they rise and
set

set nearer, or farther from them. This variation, in astronomy is called declination, or latitude of the planets. It is measured by an arch of the meridian; it is constant and uniform, and never exceeds certain bounds.

Q. What is the third observation?

A. That all the planets do not move in the same orbit, or circle;—there are two of them, for example, which rise the same day in two different points of the horizon, and describe parallel circles.

Q. Of what use then is the zodiac?

A. It is designed to shew the proper motion of the planets. Its oblique position shews their greatest declination, which is never more than twenty-three degrees and an half, either north or south. Its width, which is sixteen degrees, embraces the course of all the planets. It is further to be observed, that as the planets trace ovals, and not circles, their distance from the earth is not always the same.

Q. What is meant by the words Apogee, and Perigee.

A. The word Apogee means the greatest distance of a planet relatively to the earth; and Perigee the least: thus, when we say the sun is in its apogee, that signifies, that it is in that point of its circle the most distant from our globe.

Q. When does either of these happen?

A. The

A. The sun is in its apogee on the 21st of June, and in its perigee the 21st of December.

Q. Why then have we winter at this last period?

A. Because that the sun at that time is much less elevated on the horizon; and that the days are very short. There is another line, or circle, supposed to pass in the middle of the zodiac, which line represents the real course of the sun, which is never out of that circle. It is called the Ecliptic, because the sun and the moon meet in it when there is an eclipse.

Q. Ought there not to be an eclipse of the sun at each conjunction, and one of the moon at every opposition?

A. That might be set down as an invariable rule, if the moon had its regular course in the ecliptic; but the circle which it traces only cuts that line into two points, and is sometimes five degrees distant from it.

Q. What particular points are remarked in that circle?

A. We observe four; the two solstitial points, which shew the greatest declination of the planets; and the two equinoctial, which are found at the points of intersection of the two circles, the equator and the ecliptic.

Q. How is the zodiac divided?

A. Into twelve equal parts, thirty degrees asunder; each division contains one of the signs,

or constellations; six of which are in the north, and six in the south.

Q. What names are given to those signs?

A. They are generally known by the following Latin names:—*Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo, Libra, Scorpio, Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius, Pisces*: the six first in the north, and the others in the south.—In order to aid the memory, the Latinists have disposed them in the two following lines:—

*Sunt Aries, Taurus, Gemini, Cancer, Leo, Virgo,
Libraque, Scorpius, Arcitenens, Caper, Amphora, Pisces.*

Q. Whence comes the zodiac?

A. It is taken from a Greek word which signifies the path of animals, because most of the signs represent some animal.

Q. How are the signs counted?

A. They are counted from west to east, beginning with Aries. The sun travels over them all in about three hundred and sixty-five days, and thus completes his revolution in what is called the year. In consequence of that, every sign of the zodiac corresponds to one-twelfth part of the year; and consequently, as said before, is thirty degrees, which is the twelfth part of three hundred and sixty, the complement of degrees in a circle. So that if the sun retrograded exactly one degree every day, the year would have
pre-

precisely three hundred and sixty days, and each month thirty; but it has been observed that to complete his revolution, the sun took up three hundred and sixty-five days and six hours, wanting eleven minutes.

Q. By what compensation are those six hours accounted for?

A. That those six hours may be exactly calculated; one day is added to the year every fourth year; and that is called biffextile, or leap year; that day is added to the month of February: nevertheless, as there are eleven minutes less than the six hours, and that in four hundred years, those eleven minutes would make three days; we suppress three biffextiles every four centuries; which is done by omitting the biffextile the first year of three centuries consecutively.

Q. What difference is there between the solar and lunar year?

A. The lunar month having, as we said before, but twenty-nine days and a half, the lunar year is about eleven days shorter than the solar.

Q. What is the Julian kalender?

A. It is the manner of reckoning the year, according to the correction made by Julius Cesar, who introduced the biffextile every four years.

Q. What is the Gregorian kalender?

A. It is the new style, or manner of counting the year, after the method of Pope Gregory XII.

who, to give the year the greatest precision possible, took off three biffextiles every fourth century.

Q. When was that correction made?

A. In 1582, and in the month of October of the same year, the eleven days in advance were taken off, which makes the difference between the old and new style. There are some Protestant states in the north, who do not follow the Gregorian correction,—and it is not many years since England adopted it.

LESSON VIII.

The Circles of the Sphere continued.

Q. WHAT is the equator?

A. It is a great circle equally distant from either pole, and which divides the sphere in two equal parts, one north and the other south.—

This circle is intended to represent the diurnal motion of the sun and planets, which daily describe circles parallel to the equator; and more

or less distant from it, according to the place in the zodiac where they rise. As the equator is equally distant from both the poles, it serves to determine the east and west with precision;—and also the greatest declination of the planets, which are counted, as said before, from that circle, on an arc of the meridian.

Q. In what manner does the zodiac meet the equator?

A. The zodiac forms two points of intersection with the equator; one in the first degree of Aries; and the other in the first of Libra. When the sun rises in either of those two points, the circle which he traces is the equator itself; then it happens that the days and nights are equal, the nocturnal arc having the same length as the diurnal; because that the equator is cut in two equal parts by the horizon. Those two points are called the equinoxes, for which reason the equator is also called the equinoctial line. The equinoxes happen, one on the 21st of March, and the other the 21st of September, which commence spring and autumn. In fine, the equator serves to measure time, because that the sun, in one hour, goes over the twenty-fourth part of his diurnal revolution, which is fifteen degrees of the equator.

Q. What are the colures?

A. They are two circles which reciprocally cut each other at right angles, at both the poles; and

and serve to support the other circles of the sphere. Their name is taken from a Greek word, which signifies mutilated or imperfect; because that in astronomy no use is made of those circles entire, but only of an arc, or portion of their circumference.

Q. How are they distinguished?

A. That of the colures which passes those two points, where the zodiac cuts the equator, is called the colure of the equinoxes. The other, which passes the two points when the zodiac is at the greatest distance from the equator, is called the colure of the solstices. They serve also to mark the greatest, or least declination of the planets, when the colure is in the plan of the meridian.

Q. What are the two tropics?

A. They are two circles parallel to the equator; each of which is twenty-three degrees and a half distant from it; one north and the other south. Those two circles are formed by the revolution of the two most distant points of the ecliptic from the equator. They take their names from a Greek word which means return; because that when the sun has traced those circles, he advances no more towards the poles, but returns towards the equator. The two points of the sun's greatest declination being one in the first degree of Cancer, and the other in the first of Capricorn; one of those circles is called the

tropic of Cancer, and the other the tropic of Capricorn; the first near the arctic pole, and the second near the antarctic.

Q. What are the solstices?

A. They are the two points formed at the tropics by the sun's utmost declination; because that the sun having attained those points, seems, for some days, to stop there without either advancing towards the poles, nor retrograding visibly towards the equator.

Q. How many solstices are there in the year?

Two; the summer solstice, the 21st of June, under the sign of Cancer; and the winter solstice, the 21st of December, under the sign of Capricorn. At the summer solstice we have the longest day and at the winter solstice the longest night. It is quite the reverse with those who inhabit the southern hemisphere.

Q. When do the seasons of the year begin?

A. After what has been said of the four principal points of the ecliptic, it is evident that spring and autumn begin at the two equinoxes; winter and summer at the two solstices. The sun is three months in completing his course from the equator to the tropic of Cancer; and takes up the same time in returning to the equator. In the same manner he is three months in his course from the equator to the Capricorn, and as much in his return to the equator, which

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completes the four seasons, and the twelve months of the year.

Q. What difference has been remarked with regard to the equinoxes and solstices?

A. It has been ascertained that the equinoxes take place sooner than they did formerly. That is what is called the *precession of the equinoxes*. It makes fifty seconds every year, and is caused by the impulsion of the fixed stars. It is lastly to be observed, on the chapter of the tropics, that those circles determine exactly what we called before, the east and west of summer, and the east and west of winter.

Q. What are the two polar circles?

A. They are the two smallest on the artificial sphere; and are twenty-three degrees and a half distant from the poles. The one is called the arctic polar circle, and the other the antarctic, in consequence of their vicinity to either of those poles. Those two circles serve only to mark the poles of the zodiac, which are as far distant from those of the equator, as the zodiac itself is from that circle.

LESSON IX.

The different Positions of the Sphere.

Q. WHAT is understood by the words, position of the sphere?

A. It signifies the various aspects under which the heavens and the planets present themselves to the different people of the earth, with regard to their situation on the globe.

Q. Why is it necessary to remark those positions?

A. It is by those observations only, that we can explain why all the inhabitants of the earth do not see the heavens in the same manner, and that they have not their days and nights equally long the whole year.

Q. How many positions are there?

A. Three positions, relatively to the horizon; the upright, the parallel, and the oblique.

Q. What is the upright sphere?

A. It is that wherein the poles of the earth are found on the celestial horizon; so that it is cut, at right angles, by the equator and the tropics. That is the position of the sphere, for those people who inhabit directly under the equator;

equator; and as all the parallels of that circle are cut into two equal parts by the horizon, they live in a perpetual equinox. The people thus situated, see the sun pass twice a year over their heads, as it advances either north or south.—All the parts of the heavens are visible to them, and they successively see all the stars.

Q. What is the parallel sphere?

A. It is that which is so placed that the poles are in the zenith and nadir; and that the equator becomes parallel to the horizon. This is the position of the sphere, for the inhabitants of the poles, if there can be any in so cold a situation; as in that position one half of the ecliptic is above the horizon, and the other below; those people must necessarily have six months continual day, and six months night.

Q. Which is the oblique sphere?

A. It is that which has one of the poles elevated above the horizon, and the other below it; so that the circle of the horizon is cut obliquely by the equator. All those people, who like us, are placed between the equator and the poles, have the oblique sphere. As that position regards us more directly than the others, it merits to be well digested.

Q. How can one conceive that obliquity of the sphere?

A. To conceive it well, we must suppose a man under the equator, where he sees the poles at the horizon,

rizon, and that he travels directly north, and advances one degree; the result will be, that though the pole has not moved, it will appear to him one degree elevated, on account of the rotundity of the earth; and it really will be elevated one degree above the horizon; therefore, to represent the position of the sphere with regard to that man, it will be requisite to elevate the arctic pole one degree, and lower the antarctic as much, which will consequently give it an oblique position. It is evident that the more this man will advance towards the pole, the greater will be the obliquity relative to him; it may vary from one degree to ninety, and then the sphere will be parallel.

Q. What other remarks do you make on that position?

A. In that situation of the sphere all the parallels to the equator, which the sun describes in the course of the year, except the equator itself, will be cut into two unequal parts by the horizon; so that the diurnal arc will be bigger or less than the nocturnal; in consequence of which, all those who have the sphere thus disposed, have unequal days and nights the whole year, except those two days when the sun is in the equator, and then it is the equinox. The greater the obliquity, that is to say, the more we advance towards the poles, the greater also is the inequality of the days and nights.

Q. How do those people see the heavens?

A. The

A. The nearer they approach the upright sphere, the greater is the portion of the heavens they discover; and by the same reason that portion grows less as they advance towards the parallel. We must here observe, that astronomers calculate the length of the day by the time that passes between the rising and setting of the sun; but there is another light, called the Aurora, which precedes the rising of the sun; and another, called Crepuscule, which follows sun-set. The Aurora commences as soon as the sun has attained within eighteen degrees of the equator, below the horizon. Under the equator, the Aurora and Crepuscule are very short; because, as the sun rises and sets perpendicularly, it soon attains eighteen degrees. Those people, situated between the equator and the poles, have their crepuscules longer or shorter, in proportion as the sphere they inhabit is more or less oblique. In short, the inhabitants of the poles have very long crepuscules: it is supposed that they have them two months before the sun rises, and two months after it is set; so that, properly speaking, they have but two months night, part of which they have the light of the moon.

LESSON X.

The different Systems of the WORLD.

Q. WHAT is meant by the system of the world?

A. We mean the order in which the astronomers have conjectured that the celestial bodies were placed; as they could not be convinced by experience.

Q. How many systems are there?

A. Three; the system of Ptolomeus, that of Copernicus, and that of Tycho-Brahé.

Q. What is the system of Ptolomeus?

A. Judging of the celestial bodies by appearances, he has placed the earth in the center of the universe, and supposed it to have no motion. He has, afterwards, placed the moon nearest the earth; then, gradually, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn.

Q. How is the diurnal motion explained?

A. It is explained by giving to each planet its particular heaven, which is solid, though transparent. They are hurried away by a great circle, called the *primus mobilis*, which surrounds them all, and is supposed to move from east to west, and to revolve in twenty-four hours.

Q. Does

Q. Does he not suppose them to have a motion peculiar to themselves.

A. Yes; and he explains it by supposing also, that the impression of the *primus mobilis*, on these inferior circles, does not hinder each of them from preserving their own proper motion in a contrary direction; that is to say, from west to east.

Q. How is the declination of the planets determined on that system?

A. As to that, Ptolomeus has imagined crystalline heavens, which move continually from south to north, carrying with them the planets, as far as twenty-three degrees and an half from the equator, towards either pole.

Q. What is your opinion of this system?

A. A system thus complicated cannot be admissible; for, besides that the excessive velocity of his *primus mobilis* and all those movable heavens, in contrary directions, are not easily conceived: there are two reasons which entirely destroy the system.

Q. What are those reasons?

A. The first is, that it has been proved, since the invention of the telescope, that Venus and Mercury turn round the sun; and, consequently, that the earth is not placed in the center of the universe. As a further proof of this, it has been observed, that those planets sometimes move from east to west, and at others from west to east; they have also been observed to remain as fixed, for a time, to one point of the heavens. From those remarks

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it is evident, that they do not not revolve round the earth as their center. The second reason is, that the solidity of the heavens, necessary for adopting that system, cannot agree with the motion of the comets, which are distinctly seen to pass from the heaven of one planet into that of another.

Q. What is the Copernican system?

A. It is a system with which the ancient astronomers were not entirely unacquainted; it consists in supposing the sun placed in the center of our vortex; after which he places Mercury, Venus, and the Earth, round which he supposes the moon to revolve; and, after that, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn.

Q. How does it explain the diurnal motion?

A. By making the earth revolve on its own axis, from west to east, in twenty-four hours.

Q. How are the annual motion, and the declination accounted for.

A. They are both explained by placing the earth in the ecliptic; in lieu of the sun; by that method the diurnal revolution of the planets are only apparent; but they retain their proper motion from west to east: moreover the earth has a slow rotation, conformable to the axis of the ecliptic, which causes the precession of the equinoxes.

A. Do you approve of this system?

Q. So noble and simple a system is certainly more probable, and seems more conformable to the wisdom of the Creator; it accounts, with the

greatest facility, for all the phænomena, and has none of the defects found in that of Ptolomeus. It is not amiss to add, that the oftener we repeat these observations, the more that system is confirmed: It is now generally adopted by all the astronomers.

Q. What is Tycho-Brahé's system?

A. He holds a certain medium between the two preceding ones:—He attributes the diurnal motion to the earth, and the annual to the sun. That system is followed but by few; because it gives, without necessity, two centers to our vortex; besides the circles cross each other in contrary directions. On the whole, it is not easily comprehended.

Q. What is the general opinion of the fixed stars?

A. The astronomers suppose them to be as many suns, round which there are planets, that revolve, and receive their light and heat from them, in the same manner as the seven planets of our vortex receive their light and heat from the sun. This opinion, as well as that of the planets being inhabited, is not entirely void of probability.

Q. Does any thing seem to confirm that last conjecture?

A. With the help of the telescope, movable spots have been seen on the moon, which have disappeared all at once; it has been thought that they were clouds, which had dissolved in rain, as on
our

atmosphere: if so, it is probable the moon is inhabited; therefore, if there are inhabitants in the moon, it may, with probability, be conjectured, that the other planets are also inhabited.

PART III.

Application of the SPHERE to GEOGRAPHY.

LESSON XII.

Of LONGITUDE and LATITUDE.

Q. In what manner is the sphere applied to geography?

A. As the sun and planets seem to revolve round the earth, and as our globe appears to be in the center of the universe, geographers have applied to it all the different parts of the sphere. From thence the earth, the same as the heavens, has its axis, its pole, and its great and small circles; we consider, therefore, all the parts of the sphere as applied to the surface of the earth, which is represented in a globular form, to which it approaches; and, to make this more palpable, we make use of a

map of the whole world, with its two hemispheres on a plain surface. The axis of the earth may be easily conceived to be the same as that of the heavens; its poles two points on its surface, through which the axis is supposed to pass.

Q. Of what use are the four cardinal points?

A. They serve to shew the situation of the different inhabitants of the earth, relatively to their positions, either east, west, north or south. It is also by their means that we can resolve why a man who travels east round the earth, on his return to the place from whence he set out, reckons a day more,—and he who goes the same voyage west, reckons a day less than those who have remained on the spot.

Q. Are the great circles delineated on the maps?

A. Yes; all the great circles, as the horizon, the meridian, the zodiac, and the equator, are found on the maps: the colures are omitted as useless. The two most essential are, the equator, which we will also call the equinoctial line,—and the meridian. The parallels of those two circles are found also on the maps, at ten degrees distance from each other. These circles serve to determine, with the greatest precision, the situation of every spot on the globe, with the help of longitude and latitude.

Q. What is longitude?

A. The

A. The longitude of a place, is the distance, in degrees, between a meridian, which is looked upon as the first,—and that of one of its parallels, which falls perpendicularly on a given place.

Q. What is latitude?

The latitude of a place, is its distance, in degrees, from the equator to one of its parallels, which runs vertically over the given place.

Q. How is longitude counted?

A. They count it from west to east, on the degrees of the equator. The reason for preferring to count it that way is, that if a place lies east of another,—for example, fifteen degrees,—we know immediately that in that place they are an hour later in the day than those who inhabit fifteen degrees more west. Another reason is, that the Ancients thought they knew the utmost boundaries of the earth towards the west, but were ignorant of its extent towards the east.

Q. Is there any fixed point in the heavens by which they count longitude?

A. No particular point has been decided; in consequence, arbitrary points, or places have been fixed upon for the passage of the first meridian. The French, by an act of Parliament of Lewis XIII., in 1634, have placed it at Ferro, one of the Canary islands; the Dutch at the Pico of Teneriffe; the Spaniards at Toledo; the Portuguese at Tercera, one of the Azores; and the English at Greenwich. To fix the longitude of
two

two different countries, they make use of the lunar eclipses, or rather the satellites of Jupiter, by observing precisely the hour at which the eclipse begins. If one supposes one of those places under the first meridian, or that its longitude be known, that of the other will be found, by considering that every hour difference between the two places is fifteen degrees on the equator.

Q. Can longitude be found at sea?

A. It is nearly found by observations made on celestial bodies,—but it requires time and precision. Most of the nations of Europe have offered rewards for the discovery. Several able mechanics have presented the fruits of their researches; but Mr. Harrison, a famous clock-maker, of London, some years ago invented a machine which had the greatest success, and for which he received from government a gratification of 10,000*l*.

Q. Are all the degrees of longitude equal?

A. No; they do not correspond to the same space all over the earth. You will observe on the maps, that the more we approach to the north, the meridian circles come nearer to each other, and consequently occupy less space.

Q. How is latitude counted?

A. It is counted from the equator to either pole; there is north and south latitude, so that we count ninety degrees on each side of the equator, to the poles. Latitude is easily mea-

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fured,—because that towards the north there is a fixed star near the pole, called the Polar Star, and which is part of the constellation called the Little Bear. As that star always shews the north, it was of great use in navigation before the invention of the mariner's compass, which serves their purpose better, as they can direct their course when that star is not seen. Latitude is counted on an arc of the meridian, by taking the height of the pole, by means of a graduated quadrant,—and every degree found on the quadrant, will be a degree of latitude.

Q. Is there any other means of finding it?

A. Yes; find the distance, in degrees, from the zenith of a given place to the nearest pole, and subtract that number from ninety, (the number of degrees in a quadrant,) the remainder will be the latitude of the given place.

Q. What is observed on that?

A. As the arcs of two circles,—one parallel to the equator, the other parallel to the meridian, and consequently perpendicular to each other, can only intersect in one point,—that point will mark the situation of the place required. From thence it follows, that as soon as the longitude and latitude of a place, on any part of the globe, are known, that place is easily found on the maps, which are made exact by that means only. On the globes and maps of the world, they mark the degrees of longitude on the equator,

tor, and those of latitude on the brazen circle, or first meridian. In well digested maps, longitude is marked top and bottom,—and latitude right and left.

Q. From whence come the names of longitude and latitude?

A. Those denominations come from the Ancients, who knew much more of the land from east to west, than from south to north; and counting their degrees from west to east all round the globe, gave the name of longitude to the greatest extent, and latitude to the other. They looked upon the Canary islands as the utmost extent of the world,—having, at that time, made no further discoveries.

LESSON XII.

ZONES and CLIMATES.

Q. Of what use are the small circles to geography?

A. If we suppose the two tropics and the two polar circles delineated on the surface of the globe, it will then be divided into five parts, called Zones: one torrid zone, two temperate zones,

zones, and two frigid zones. The torrid zone, thus named from the excessive heat of the country, is separated into two equal parts by the equator, and extends north and south to the tropics; which, as said before, are twenty-three degrees and a half distant from the equator: after that, we find the two temperate zones situated north and south of the torrid zone, both of which extend as far as their respective polar circles. They are called temperate, because they do not experience an excessive heat in summer, nor the intenseness of cold in winter. The two frigid zones, thus called on account of the intense cold, are situated between the polar circles and either pole,—the one north and the other south. We are, with regard to that country, as the Ancients were with regard to the torrid zone; they thought that it was impossible it could be inhabited, on account of the heat; and we imagine, with more probability, that the two frigid zones cannot be inhabited at the poles, on account of the cold, which must be beyond description.

It has been observed, that if the poles of the ecliptic were the same as those of the equator, a perpetual summer would reign in the torrid zone,—a continual spring in the two temperate zones,—and an everlasting winter in the two frigid. We may conclude from thence, that no country in the world would produce the necessaries

ries of life. The declination of the ecliptic to twenty-three degrees and a half, is an efficacious remedy.

Q. In what other manner is the surface of the globe divided?

A. It is astronomically divided into climates; and that division is founded on the inequality observed in the length of the days, in the different countries situated more or less distant from the equator.

Q. What is a climate?

A. It is a part of the surface of the earth contained between two circles parallel to the equator,—and at the two extremities of which, a remarkable difference is found in the length of the days. To determine this difference, it is necessary to fix upon the longest day in the year, and observe how many hours the sun is above the horizon that day. Observe, that under the equator the days are always of twelve hours, and that under the polar circles the longest day has twenty-four,—which makes a difference of twelve hours between those two circles. This difference of twelve hours, is to be divided into halves, which will give twenty-four half hours, each of which is a climate; so that there are twenty-four climates of half an hour each, between the equator and either of the polar circles, which makes in all forty-eight climates, from one of the polar circles to the other.

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Q. Where

Q. Where does the first climate begin?

A. If a person advances in a direct line from the equator towards one of the poles, and finds a place where the longest day is twelve hours and a half, he is then in the first climate; if of thirteen, he will be in the second, &c.

Q. By what means is the climate of a country known?

A. The number of hours contained in the summer solstice, or longest day, must first be observed; from that number of hours subtract twelve; reduce the remainder into half hours, and the result will indicate the climate. Example: on the 21st of June, which is our longest day, the sun is sixteen hours above our horizon; subtract twelve from sixteen, there remains four, which, reduced to halves, gives eight, and proves that we are in the eighth climate.

Q. What is the latitude of a place where the longest day in the year is twenty-four hours?

A. Their latitude must necessarily be sixty-six and a half, the remaining number of ninety, after having subtracted twenty-three degrees and a half for the declination of the ecliptic. The diurnal circle is then entirely disengaged from the horizon.

Q. What other climates are there between the polar circles and the poles?

A. As the length of the days increases rapidly from those circles to the poles, being twenty-four hours

hours in the first, and six months in the second the difference of climates in that part of the world is a whole month, instead of half an hour, as before mentioned. We reckon six climates of a month each, from a polar circle to the nearest pole, which in all is twelve of those climates. The whole surface of the earth is therefore divided into sixty climates, of which there are forty-eight of half an hour, and twelve of a month.

Q. Have all those climates the same extent?

A. The hour climates nearest the equator are more extensive than the succeeding; it is the same with those in the vicinity of the poles.

LESSON XIII.

The different situation of the Inhabitants of the EARTH.

Q. WHAT other advantage is gained by the knowledge of the sphere?

A. Longitude and latitude puts us in a capacity of knowing the situation of the various people of the earth with regard to each other, with their seasons, and the manner in which they see the sun and planets.

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Q. What

Q. What denominations are given to those different people?

A. The terms used in geography to express the different situation with respect to the place where we are, are these three, *i. e.* the Periaeci, the Antaeci, and the Antipodes.

The Periaeci are situate under the same parallel, but opposite meridians. It is midnight with them when it is noon with us; but the length of days, and their seasons are the same. These are found by bringing any given place to the meridian, or brazen circle, then fixing the horary index, and turning the globe half round.

The Antaeci are situate under the same meridian, but opposite parallels. These have the seasons opposite to ours: it is the middle of winter with them when it is midsummer with us; but they have the same noon-day. These are found by counting as many degrees on the opposite side of the equator, as we are on this. Their longest day is our shortest, and so *vice versa*.

The Antipodes are under opposite meridians, and opposite parallels. Their seasons, days and nights are different. When it is summer with us, it is winter with them; when it is noon with us, it is midnight with them; and our longest day is their shortest. These are found by turning the horary index twelve hours from the given place, or turning the globe half round, and

and then counting as many degrees on the opposite side of the equator, as we are on this.

Q. What was the opinion of the ancients with respect to the last situation?

A. For a long time all those who dared maintain the system of the antipodes, were regarded as hereticks; but the discovery of America, and the voyages round the world, have confirmed that truth. Before these discoveries, the possibility of it had been ascertained by the tendency of all bodies from the surface to the center of the earth.

Q. In what other manner are the inhabitants of the earth considered?

A. They are considered under different denominations, from their shadows falling different ways at noon day, and are called Amphiscii, Ascii, Hetaeroscii, and Perisci.

The Amphiscii inhabit the torrid zone between the tropics. They have their shadows both north and south at noon-day. When the sun is south of them, their shadows are north; and when the sun is north of them at noon-day, their shadows are south. They are also called Ascii, because twice every year the sun is vertical at noon-day, and then they have no shadow.

The Hetaeroscii are those who inhabit either of the temperate zones, and have their shadows always one way at noon-day. Those in the northern temperate zone have their shadows always north, and
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those in the southern temperate zone, have their shadow always south at noon-day. •

The Periscii are those who inhabit that part of the globe within the polar circles. These have their shadows every way, while the sun is above their horizon, all the twenty-four hours, as it is several months in the year when the sun is on that side the equator next them.

LESSON XIV.

Of the Extent and Figure of the EARTH.

Q. Of what other advantage is the knowledge of the sphere?

A. Besides the advantages already mentioned, it serves to determine the extent and figure of the habitable globe. To determine which, astronomers first endeavoured to ascertain its circumference; and began their operation by measuring the extent of land contained in a degree of a great circle, such as the meridian; and found it to contain 367,200 feet, which, divided by 5280, the number of feet in a statute mile, gives 69 miles 2880 feet, the
number

number of statute miles in a degree of a great circle; which being multiplied by 360, the number of degrees in all circles, will give, for the circumference of the globe 25,036 miles 1920 feet, or 21,600 geographical miles, 60 to a degree, which last is most generally adopted, as it avoids fractions.

Q. What is the figure ascribed to the earth?

A. Astronomers give it a spherical figure, which they prove by several reasons; the first, taken from the unanimous accounts of the various navigators who have sailed round the globe in different directions, who all agree that they have found neither angles, nor any other obstructions in their passage; the second reason proceeds from the observations made on lunar eclipses, where the shade of the earth is traced on the face of the moon in the form of a semi-circle, which none but a spherical form can produce. Another demonstrative reason is taken from the observations made either by land or sea; by land, if we discover a mountain, the summit is always the first part seen; and at sea, the masts of a ship are seen a considerable time before the hull; which would not be the case if the surface was not convex. Those who reside in the east, see the eclipses begin later than those in the west. Those who travel towards either of the poles, see them rise gradually as they advance, which proves that the earth is round in all its directions.

Q. Is

Q. Is the globe perfectly round?

A. It was supposed for some time to be rather lengthened, towards the poles, in the shape of a lemon, but that surmise has been abandoned. In 1736, the king of France sent astronomers to the equator and towards the polar circles, who, after the most exact observations, and strictest mensuration, found that the earth was of a spheroidal figure, flattened towards the poles. To make themselves sure of their operations, they measured the number of feet in a degree near Paris, and, having repeated the same under the polar circle, found that a greater extent of land was requisite to correspond to a degree than what they had measured at Paris.

Q. What did they infer from thence?

A. They concluded that the curve of the earth was not precisely the same near the poles, as in its other parts, but that it was a little flattened. In consequence of all these observations, we may with safety assert, that the figure of the earth is now perfectly known, and conclude that its diameter, taken from one pole to the other, is less than if taken on the equator; but there is not a material difference.

LESSON XV.

The Principles of the SPHERE adapted to some Operations on the TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

Q. Do not the principles of the sphere serve to resolve some questions relative to geography?

A. Yes; with the aid of a terrestrial globe, several practical problems may be resolved: we will here give some of the most simple and interesting.

PROBLEM I.

Q. How can one find the latitude and longitude of a given place, as London?

A. Bring the given place to the brazen circle, which is looked upon as the first meridian, and the degree marked upon that circle, from the equator to the zenith, will be the latitude of the place, and that on the equator will shew its longitude.

Q. What is meant by rectifying the globe?

A. To rectify the globe for a place, is nothing more, after the latitude of that place is found, than elevating the opposite pole as many degrees above the horizon as those found for the latitude of the given place.

PROBLEM

P R O B L E M II.

Q. How can one know the distance between two given places?

A. Place the two points of a compass on the given places, and, without changing its opening, carry it on the equator, and count the degrees contained between the two points, and that will give you the distance in geographical miles, sixty to a degree. It is to be remarked, that this rule will always hold good when distances are measured from the equator to either pole, that is to say in degrees of latitude; but, as observed before, the meridian lines draw nearer to each other as they advance towards the poles; consequently the degrees gradually diminish from the equator to the poles. There are tables which indicate those degrees for every part of the world.

P R O B L E M III.

Q. Tell me how to find what hour it is in any place, when the hour is known in another: as, for example, when it is four in the afternoon in London?

A. Rectify the globe for the given place, and bring it to the meridian; then fix the hororary index at the given hour, and turn the globe, and bring the places successively to the meridian, and

the index will shew the hour at all the places required. Thus, when it is four o'clock at London, it will be five at Naples, six at Constantinople and Petersburg, ten at Bengal, eleven at Batavia, and near twelve at night at Pekin; twelve at noon at Barbadoes, and eleven in the morning at Port Royal in Jamaica.

P R O B L E M I V.

Q. How must one do to find the sun's place in the ecliptic on a given day; as, for example, the 18th of August?

A. Find that day in the circle of the signs on the horizon; you will find it answer to the twenty-third degree of Leo; then look for that same degree on the zodiack, and it will be the sun's place for that day.

P R O B L E M V.

Q. How must I do to find the rising and setting of the sun, on a given day; as the fifteenth of May, for a given place, as Paris?

A. Elevate the pole to the latitude of that city, seek the sun's place for that day; you will find it to be the twenty-fourth degree of Taurus; bring the place under the meridian, and fix the index at
twelve,

twelve; turn the globe to the east, till the twenty-fourth degree of Taurus touches the horizon; turn it back to the west, till the same degree touches again; observe the hour marked by the index in both operations; you will find four and an half for the rising of the sun, and seven and an half for its setting.



FINIS

